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CHRIST OF THE ANDES

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## OF THE ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES

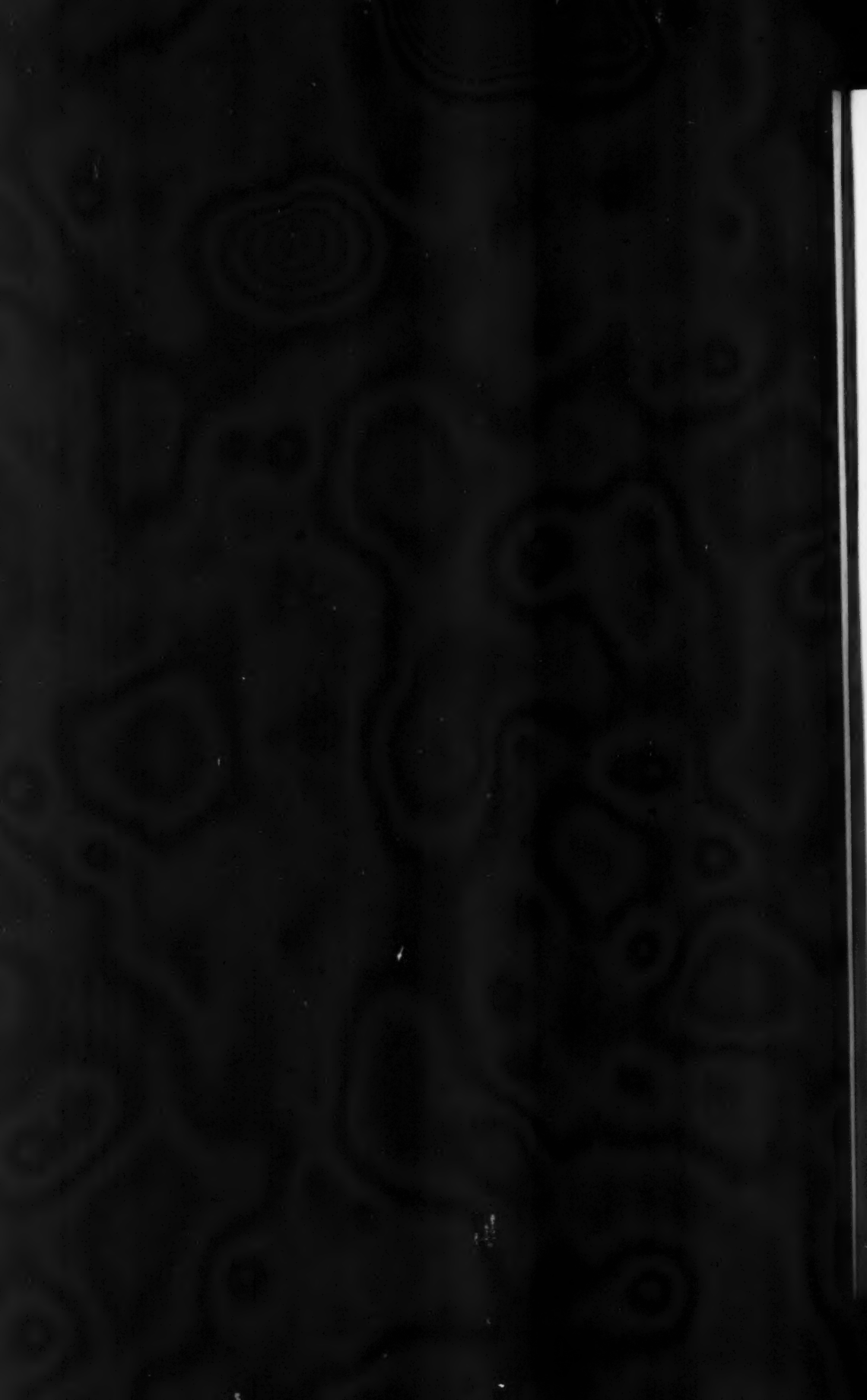
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# ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES

## GENERAL SECRETARIAT • PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

ALBERTO LLERAS, Secretary General

WILLIAM MANGER, Assistant Secretary General

The Organization of American States, whose origin dates from the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in 1890, is based on the Charter signed April 30, 1948, at the Ninth International Conference of American States, meeting in Bogotá.

Twenty-one American States are members of the Organization—Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

The Organization has been developed to achieve an order of peace and justice, to promote the solidarity of the American States, to strengthen their collaboration, and to defend their sovereignty, their territorial integrity, and their independence. Within the United Nations, the Organization constitutes a regional agency.

The General Secretariat of the Organization, and its permanent central organ, is the Pan American Union, founded at the First Conference on April 14, 1890. April 14 is celebrated throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The scope of Pan American Union activities was expanded by resolutions adopted at succeeding Conferences. The Union has gradually broadened its activities in every field of international cooperation, and its technical and information offices render ever greater service to the governments and peoples of the hemisphere. It has the responsibility of furthering, through these offices and under the direction of the Council of the Organization, economic, social, juridical, and cultural relations among all the American States.

The offices of the Pan American Union are grouped in five Departments, namely: a) Department of Economic and Social Affairs; b) Department of International Law and Organization; c) Department of Cultural Affairs; d) Department of Information; and e) Department of Administrative Services. Their directors are appointed by the Secretary General. The directors of the first three Departments are the Executive Secretaries of the Inter-American Economic and Social Council, the Inter-American Council of Jurists, and the Inter-American Cultural Council, respectively. The Assistant Secretary General is the secretary of the Council of the Organization.

The Council of the Organization, which has its seat at the Pan American Union, is composed of

one representative for each Member State of the Organization; he is appointed by the respective government, with rank of Ambassador. In discussions each State has one vote. Decisions of the Council are taken by a simple majority or, in certain cases, by a two-thirds vote. The Council takes cognizance, within the limits of the Charter and inter-American treaties and agreements, of matters referred to it by the Inter-American Conferences or the Meetings of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs. It is also a provisional Organ of Consultation for the purposes of the Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance, and has special functions in the peaceful solution of controversies between American States, in accordance with the Pact of Bogotá on this subject. In addition, the Council is responsible for the proper performance of the duties assigned to the Pan American Union, and elects the Secretary General and the Assistant Secretary General of the Organization.

The Council takes action itself or acts through its technical Organs to further cooperation in various fields of activity. These Organs are: The Inter-American Economic and Social Council, the Inter-American Council of Jurists, and the Inter-American Cultural Council. The first functions permanently at the Pan American Union, and the two latter meet periodically at places chosen by themselves.

The Member States contribute to the maintenance of the Union by means of annual quotas on bases determined by the Council of the Organization, taking into account each country's ability to pay and its determination to contribute equitably. The budget is approved by the Council.

The Pan American Union is also the permanent General Secretariat of the Inter-American Conferences, the Meetings of Consultation of Foreign Ministers, and the Specialized Conferences. It acts as adviser to the Council of the Organization and its Organs in the preparation of programs and regulations for these meetings, offers technical assistance and necessary personnel to the governments of the countries in which they are held, acts as custodian of documents and archives of the Conferences, serves as depository of instruments of ratification of inter-American agreements, and submits reports to the Council and to the Inter-American Conferences on work accomplished by the various Organs, and in general on the activities of the Organization. The Secretary General participates in all the Inter-American Conferences and in meetings of the Council and of its Organs.

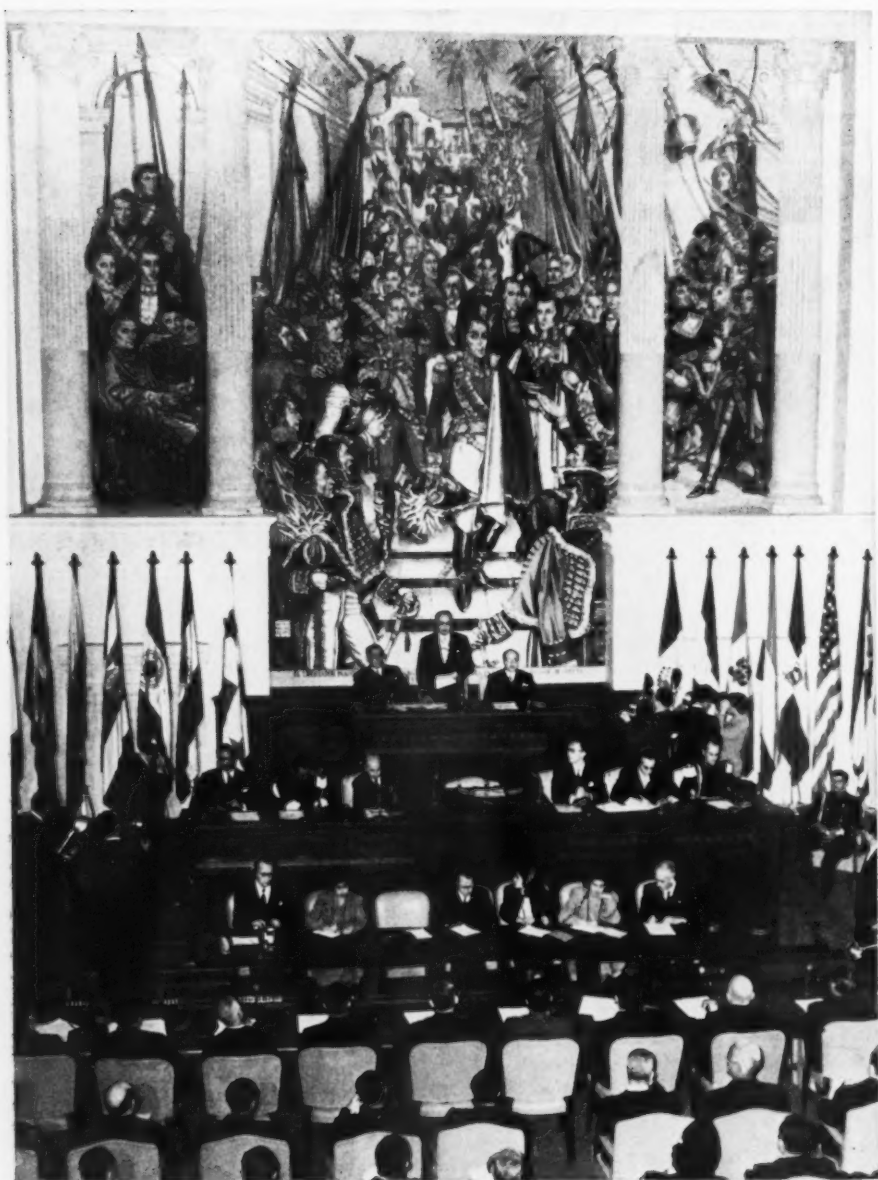


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*(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION can be found in the "Readers' Guide" in your library)*

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: MACHU PICCHU, AN INCA STRONGHOLD IN PERU (photograph by Fabio Camacho).



Courtesy of El Espectador, Bogotá

THE PRESIDENT OF COLOMBIA INAUGURATES THE NINTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES.

# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXXII, No. 6



JUNE 1948

## The Bogotá Conference

ALBERTO LLERAS

*Secretary General, Organization of American States*

I AM sure that most of you have long been thoroughly familiar with the origin and development of what was called, until Bogotá, the Inter-American System. You also know, probably better than I, the problems that have existed and still exist in the relations of the States making up this Organization, whose Charter has just been approved by the Ninth Inter-American Conference. Nevertheless, it is the duty of the Pan American Union as the General Secretariat of the Organization of American States to disseminate as widely as possible information on the work accomplished at Bogotá. And I am sure you will agree that it is fitting, at any time, to review the juridical bases of the association of American republics in order to strengthen our faith in its achievements.

With this in mind, we have decided

*Lecture delivered at the Pan American Union, May 24, 1948.*

to hold this series of lectures, which will be continued during the next two days by Dr. Manger, the Assistant Secretary General, and the Director of our Department of International Law and Organization, Dr. Fenwick. The series is not intended as a substitute for the information that members of the Council of the Organization who were at Bogotá will offer the public next fall. We had hoped that they would give their accounts first, but their official duties required some of them to return to their countries and report to their governments on the results of the Ninth Conference. Others found more pressing matters awaiting their return to Washington. And so we were prevented from organizing immediately for the general public, and especially for local university professors and students, a complete lecture course on the Organization of American States, its problems, and its eventual development. Moreover, at this time the

university year is drawing to a close and the summer sessions have not yet started. In the fall, therefore, we shall have a better opportunity to hear official interpretation of the decisions of the Ninth Conference.

So dramatic and swift are the strides made by Pan Americanism in recent months, that if I had had the pleasure of speaking to you last year I could have dealt only with proposals and projects, with the plans of the American states to develop their organization further. Today, on the other hand, I can tell you of a duly established Organization of American States with a Charter that already is largely in operation and that now confirms the legal existence of a *de facto* system that has been functioning since the First International Conference of American States, which met at Washington fifty-eight years ago. From one point of view, then, this is the most enduring, earnest, and effective arrangement of its kind the world has ever known. At the same time it is the newest, since its Charter was signed barely a month ago. This document culls the fruit of more than half a century's experience, and yet it is absolutely up to date. That is to say, it is an instrument perfectly compatible with the United Nations, and in fact it is destined to complement and round out some of the provisions of the San Francisco Charter, in the drafting of which every nation of the Western Hemisphere, without exception, had a part.

A year ago, moreover, two important treaties had not yet been concluded by the American republics, that of Reciprocal Assistance signed at Rio de Janeiro, and the American Treaty of Pacific Settlement, which together complete the framework of the international organization that governs the activities of the states in this part of the world. Two inter-American conferences, meeting in Rio and Bogotá, have accom-

plished all this, the consummation of half a century of efforts, some barren and others fruitful. I believe that this answers fully the question sometimes raised in the United States as to whether or not the Ninth Conference at Bogotá was a success. The fact is that the Organization of American States is today, in spite of its shortcomings, the most perfect instrument of its kind that has ever existed between sovereign nations. The Charter, in comparison with any analogous document of any era, is the most advanced that has been signed spontaneously, in complete unanimity, by the 21 states associated under its provisions to enjoy the rights they concede to one another mutually and to meet the obligations that they assume therein.

Of course the true significance of these international agreements has hardly been conveyed to the reader of the daily press, and many of you may be surprised to hear that events of such consequence took place at the conference in Bogotá. Some of you may also think that, in my position as an official of the Organization of American States, I might have a natural tendency to exaggerate the importance of these accomplishments, which the press and radio have not presented in the same light. I should like to make it clear, therefore, that I accepted my post only because for many years I have held the conviction that the modern course of inter-American relations represents humanity's most extraordinary and successful experiment by a group of nations living together in dignity and peace. The same thing is true of the United States' exemplary role within our organization; this country's unselfishness, nobility of purpose, and good faith in its international dealings should be a matter of pride for all Americans. There is no doubt in my mind that the inter-American organization, while producing reciprocal benefits for the two great ethnic groups





Courtesy of El Espectador, Bogotá

#### COMING FROM THE TE DEUM IN THE CATHEDRAL

On the morning of March 30 a Te Deum was chanted in the cathedral. It was attended by the delegations of the American Republics and high officials of the Colombian Government.

cooperating within it, is of much greater value to the Latin American republics. These nations have enjoyed, and will continue to enjoy, the inestimable advantage of being neighbors to one of the greatest empires in all history without suffering the fear of imperialism or the threat of violence; they bask in an international order based on law, which preserves their independence and guarantees their security more fully with each passing day. The United States has, in the Organization of American States, ample evidence, which has been patiently and soundly compiled during the past fifty-eight years, to refute the slander of native or alien critics of its foreign policy. There stands its positive contribution to peace, as well as an example of its concept of ideal international relations,

such as it would have liked to extend to the whole world had it not met in other continents with the insuperable obstacles of national egotism, inordinate ambition, and general distrust. In this field the United States can point to two different courses of its foreign policy: one, which has been followed in this hemisphere in close and honorable cooperation with twenty weak nations and summed up in the Charter of the Organization of American States, and the other, which failed at Geneva and, still beset by all manner of difficulties, is now being tried once more in the United Nations.

In the Organization of American States all the members are one another's peers; they have equal rights and identical obligations. In its assembly halls the fore-



Courtesy of El Espectador, Bogotá

#### COLOMBIAN CAPITOL

Before the inauguration of the Conference.

most power of our times has but one vote, exactly like the vote enjoyed by some of the poorest and weakest countries in the world. The most serious matters, even the sanctions to be adopted by the members against an aggressor state, are decided by majority vote. No single state, therefore, can block a decision that happens to be adverse to its interests if that decision is backed up by the mathematical force of democracy. The same fundamental principle that guides the political life of this country prevails in the basic rules of the Organization of American States.

The Organization draws strength from another basic precept, and that is that no state or group of states has the right to intervene, directly or indirectly, for any reason whatever, in the internal or external affairs of any other state. The

foregoing principle prohibits not only armed force, but also any other form of interference or attempted threat against the personality of the state or against its political, economic, and cultural elements. No state may use or encourage the use of coercive measures of an economic or political character to force the sovereign will of another state and obtain from it advantages of any kind. However, the measures that by virtue of the existing treaties—particularly that of Reciprocal Assistance—may be adopted to safeguard peace and security do not constitute a violation of these principles, nor are they to be construed as intervention, in any sense of the word.

The object of the Organization of American States is to achieve an order of peace and justice on the American Continent, to promote the solidarity of the



member States, to strengthen their collaboration, and to defend their sovereignty, their territorial integrity, and their independence. Within the United Nations, the Organization of American States is a regional agency as provided for by the San Francisco Charter.

Now you might very naturally ask why we need another charter, since we already have that of the United Nations, and the American Republics are members of that organization. First of all, because our organization antedates the one created at San Francisco. And in the second place, because not only does the World Charter make ample provision for regional organizations, but actually, it seems to me, it calls for such organizations as indispensable. It does so with three ends in view: first, the pacific settlement of all controversies before submitting them to the United Nations; second, the exercise of the right of collective self-defense, recognized in article 51 of the United Nations Charter; and third, the promotion of regional cooperation for the greater understanding and advancement of a group of nations bound together by traditional and geographic ties.

These three purposes of all regional organizations are carried out in our hemisphere by the Organization of American States. The peaceful solution of international controversies that arise among American States is accomplished by the regional organization by means of the American Treaty of Pacific Settlement, which prescribes the various methods to be employed in settling disputes. The Treaty boldly goes farther than this: it foresees no controversy that cannot be definitively solved within a reasonable period of time, and it refers the contending parties to the International Court of Justice, or to compulsory arbitration in the event the matter is outside the competence of that Court.

Before the matter reaches this stage, however, it is subject to settlement by any one of a series of peaceful procedures, including mediation, good offices, conciliation, and investigation, which in the majority of cases should prove definitive.

But if one of the American States breaks its promise to settle all its disputes by pacific means, and its attitude threatens or disrupts the peace, the Organization of American States has another very potent instrument in the Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance, under whose provisions all the other American republics are automatically lined up on the side of the victim of aggression and committed to go to its defense. There is a graduated scheme of sanctions leading up to and including the use of armed force to repel aggression. With these two instruments, the one making pacific settlement compulsory and the other producing a united front against aggression, it is safe to say that war has been abolished from the American Continent, at least as far as the American States themselves are concerned. Of course war could be brought to our lands by nations outside the hemisphere. And in that event continental solidarity against extra-continental aggression would go into play with even greater speed and effectiveness. No American Republic can become the victim of aggression without finding itself assisted at once by all the rest, by virtue of the rights laid down in the San Francisco Charter and implemented by our American treaties.

These are what we might term the basic political purposes of the Organization of American States. But there are others. The American States do not limit their solidarity to collective self-defense; it operates in other aspects of their continental life. There is, for example, economic and social solidarity among them. Hence the need for cooperation. The philosoph-

ical concept of such cooperation arises out of the recognition by the American States of the fact that within the hemisphere any backward, impoverished, and undemocratic country, besides being a menace to the stability of inter-American relations, is a dead weight hampering the progress of the rest. It is the same rule that operates in every democracy, in the national life of our countries. But applied to international affairs it is something new. Up to the present time the great empires have not maintained themselves on their military might alone; to a great degree they have rested on the poverty, the backwardness, and the weakness of others. Imperialism is the systematic exploitation of bad social conditions in weak countries, on the part of a great power. International solidarity is the negation of imperialism, and its antidote. The raising of the living standards of poor and undeveloped nations in order to create better world conditions is, strange as it may seem, a new and sensational departure in international policy. In the domestic affairs of any country, the United States for example, no one can doubt today that the prevalence of large groups of poor inhabitants, while a potential source of cheap labor, does not contribute to national prosperity. On the international level, however, just the opposite view has been the rule until very recently: great powers have been created chiefly on the basis of subsistence wages in their colonies. This is the theory we hope to replace now in America by international economic cooperation.

The press comments on the Ninth International Conference have referred principally to this aspect of its work. But the purpose of this Conference was almost exclusively political in character, and at Rio de Janeiro it was decided that an agreement on the bases of inter-American

economic cooperation should be discussed only incidentally at Bogotá, as a special economic conference was scheduled to meet in Buenos Aires toward the end of this year or early in 1949. But since the regular work of the Conference proceeded so smoothly, the attention of the press observers was focussed on those topics on which there was some disagreement, or, more exactly, on which there was something less than complete agreement. This explains why there has been talk of the failure of the Conference, because the convention on economic cooperation presented certain difficulties and gave rise to the need for some compromises. It was easy to overlook the fact that the Ninth Conference has to its credit the approval of the Charter of the Organization of American States, the American Treaty of Pacific Settlement, two conventions on the granting of political and civil rights to women, the Inter-American Charter of Social Guarantees, the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man, and resolutions on the Preservation and Defense of Democracy in America and on Colonies and Occupied Territories in America, not to mention more than forty resolutions on other matters affecting and defining our international association and its policies.

But the Economic Agreement of Bogotá, which establishes the general lines along which economic cooperation will develop, is an excellent document. It was not its purpose to define specifically the procedures to be employed in this cooperation. That will be the task of the Buenos Aires conference. The agreement merely sets forth the principles on which this cooperation will be based. And it describes them very clearly. The actual evaluation of the specific needs of each country, along the lines of the work that preceded the discussion of the Marshall Plan for Europe,

is the next step. It is necessary to determine for each of the American republics what its individual capacities are, what resources it has to undertake large-scale projects, or how it can contribute to the development of the other American nations. All this will be undertaken at Buenos Aires and will be preceded by a detailed, serious, and thoroughgoing research study by the Inter-American Economic and Social Council.

The problems of cooperation and political solidarity among the American republics have now, happily, been resolved. In this field the Organization, as I said earlier, is nearly perfect—perhaps as perfect as any international organization can be. It has organs to define its policy, such as the *Inter-American Conferences* at which every five years the representatives of the governments meet to decide questions pertaining to their relationships or the structure of the Organization; the *Meetings of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs*, which convene to consider urgent problems or those of common interest to the American States and to adopt decisions on matters provided for in the Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance; and the *Council of the Organization of American States*, that permanent hemispheric parliament with headquarters in Washington, which, besides acting as a provisional Organ of Consultation, watches over the progress of the Organization and promotes cooperation among the member States, either on its own initiative, or through its technical agencies, namely, the Inter-American Economic and Social Council, the Inter-American Council of Jurists, and the Inter-American Cultural Council. In Washington we have another permanent organ in the *Pan American Union*, which performs the functions of Secretariat for the Organization, the Council, and the latter's organs. In addition there is the

*Advisory Defense Committee* composed of the highest military authorities of the hemisphere and meeting whenever the Organ of Consultation considers it advisable to study matters of collective self-defense. This outline will give you an idea of how well equipped the Organization is in the political sphere and what active instruments stand ready to meet the requirements of peace and security.

In the economic field, on the other hand, we have barely made a beginning. Many become discouraged at the thought of how much needs to be done. I wonder, however, whether from every point of view the task that has just been brought to a happy culmination in the political sphere, after 58 years of endeavor, was not vastly more difficult. The disheartening contrast between the riches of the foremost industrial and economic power of the world and the poverty and backwardness of most of the countries of the hemisphere makes it difficult to see how a common meeting ground could be found for such divergent ways of life. Still it seems to me that it must have been much harder to work out bases for political rapprochement among the American nations of fifty or even ten or twenty years ago, in view of the existence then of the same contrast between the power of the United States and its neighbors, plus their highly conflicting political interests. You will remember that in those days there was dominant more than once even in high government circles in this country the strong school of thought that the United States should extend its geographic limits to include the entire hemisphere, by a process similar to that employed by some European powers in Africa and the Far East.

Just what is the task to be undertaken by economic cooperation? To judge by the news and comments in the press we might

suppose that it amounts to this: the poor and unprogressive countries of Latin America want the taxpayers of the United States to meet the cost of developing their resources, just as they are going to pay for the reconstruction of Europe. But the problem is far more complex than this, and such a presentation of the case is quite unfair.

It happens that the great majority of the Latin American nations have had to struggle against geographic and social factors, which have played a decisive part in their economic development, cultural progress, and social stability. It would be well to repeat here in passing that the vast natural resources generally attributed to Latin America are a legend almost as old as history, but unfortunately just a legend. In terms of the units of measure to which you are accustomed, the potentialities of Central America, the islands of the Caribbean, and the southern half of the hemisphere are certainly meager. With the exception of Argentina, Uruguay, Chile and the south of Brazil (all in the extreme southernmost part of the continent), the best lands are generally to be found in the mountain areas, which enjoy a healthful climate and contain isolated groups of population surrounded by vast jungles seething with tropical diseases that took a terrific toll of the hapless peoples whose lot it was to live there. The Andean mountain ranges both protected these highland dwellers from outside encroachment and delayed their progress by making them inaccessible to the rest of the world until the middle of the XVIII century, and by preventing the introduction of modern ways of life. It is true that Latin America is rich in great underground petroleum deposits, and has excellent mines and other economic resources awaiting exploitation. But where are the transportation systems that are needed? Where are the equipment and

the capital required? In tropical Latin America international interests did develop the quinine and rubber industries, until they discovered that it was cheaper to get these products from the Orient after wage-levels in the New World started to rise. For some time other great imperial interests have been trying to develop coffee plantations in countries where slavery still exists, replacing their Latin American sources lest the payment of a decent wage to workers be added to the cost of coffee. The fault does not lie entirely with the Latin Americans that the efforts made in the past century and this to develop their resources with the aid of foreign capital—railroads, mining and oil wells, agricultural enterprises—have not served to enrich them in spite of the great profits derived from these activities by the investors. The fact is that in a large part of these countries there are two concurrent ways of life: one, on the surface, composed of a thin stratum of people who live very much as do Europeans and North Americans and enjoy a cosmopolitan outlook and in some cases a broad education; the other layer lies far below this level, engulfed in poverty and social neglect, living in a state of ignorance and often in the most primitive conditions. Between the two there are very few contacts. In countries where there is an appreciable Indian element in the population, this is always to be found in the second category.

If the standards of living of these great masses of humanity were raised so that they could take their places as producers and consumers of goods, millions of people of unusual intelligence and native ability would be incorporated into the economic life of the hemisphere. There are many factors that have been delaying this inevitable evolution, and they also menace the political stability of Latin America, which is subject to continuous underground

movements and mysterious collapses it would be impossible to explain in terms of social and political phenomena that occur in this part of the world or in Europe. One of those factors is the resistance offered by the upper economic stratum, which regards as revolutionary any change in the living conditions of the people and as bad business any improvement in wages or working conditions. These interests find it possible to bring sufficient pressure to bear on the governments, whoever may happen to be in power at the time, to secure protection for monopolistic industries that retard the natural flowering of the national economy, lessen the opportunities for employment, and make the life of the people more costly. From time to time revolutions or political upheavals of a social nature arouse a desire for power among the lower levels of society, and sometimes even a national congress will distinguish itself with progressive legislation, which later turns out to be impossible of execution.

Therefore, the disillusionment and the feeling of impotence in the face of poverty, combined with a considerable measure of freedom of the press and of propaganda, provides a fertile soil for the seeds of new uprisings which, in countries whose population is prone to engage freely in politics, may take a new form each time. This is not surprising in lands where there are millions of inhabitants without a home or an organized family life, without schools, without land, without even personal belongings. Their only risk in joining a revolutionary movement is the loss of the following day's wages. To this state of chronic instability must be added the need that every government feels to strengthen the forces of public order—the police and the army—usually up to a point incompatible with the financial resources of the nation. In such a situation those who govern the

Latin American States have all felt the pressing need to achieve some social balance, a measure of justice. In their search for the solution, however, they have more than once run counter to the interests of foreign capitalists. These capitalists, while accepting as part of their production costs the high wages paid in other parts of the world where there is a spiraling cost of living, nevertheless quickly adapt themselves in Latin America to the existing colonial economic system. Frequently they limit their ties with those countries to the minimum contact necessary to derive the highest possible return from their investments, which usually enjoy the advantage of government concessions and special privileges intended to attract foreign capital.

All these factors contribute to the difficulty of introducing at any given time an effective system of economic cooperation, one that would result in reciprocal benefit to the United States on the one hand and to the Latin American republics on the other. But difficult though this may be, it is also for the same reasons vital, urgent, and no longer to be deferred, in the interests of all the American republics, not excepting the United States. To cite just one example, let us consider a topic that has justly claimed the special attention of American public opinion since the last war, and that is hemispheric security, which is affected not only by the way the signatory states honor such international agreements as the Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance, but also by the political stability of the Latin American governments. But as long as no positive effort is made to improve social conditions in Latin America, to raise the standard of life of the lower classes, this stability remains ever in jeopardy, and each day the danger grows.

It is not that the Latin American countries may turn communistic. No, the

trouble lies in the fact that in some parts of our continent the social atmosphere is such that abject poverty leads naturally to disturbances of the peace, to anarchy, and to popular uprisings; and of course international communism takes advantage of these situations, not necessarily to proselytize, but to spread confusion and to sabotage the good neighbor relations and our strong inter-American ties. Powerful communistic parties are not needed, now or in the future. All that is required is that scattered representatives of subversive international organizations be alert to make the most of every disturbance, to utilize every occasion to destroy order, to foster revolt, and to aggravate every source of friction between the American states.

I cannot think of any other factor that could be more disruptive of the security of this nation and of the best interests of world democracy than an unstable Latin America, in a state of disorganization, and shaken by social convulsions and sudden changes of government that would make impossible cooperation with the United States in behalf of peace or national security. This is one good reason why we should seek effective forms of economic cooperation to promote, defend, and maintain the democratic principles of the hemisphere. But that is not the only one.

Another is the fact, however much we might wish to evade it, that the economic life of the hemisphere is indivisible. If vigorous and well directed steps are not taken to create better living conditions in Latin America, that section of the world may easily become a burden—an intolerable one—and an obstacle to the progress of life in North America. With rising standards in the United States will come, inevitably, higher prices for the goods produced here, and at the same time fewer purchases by the countries to the South. The United States cannot continue in-

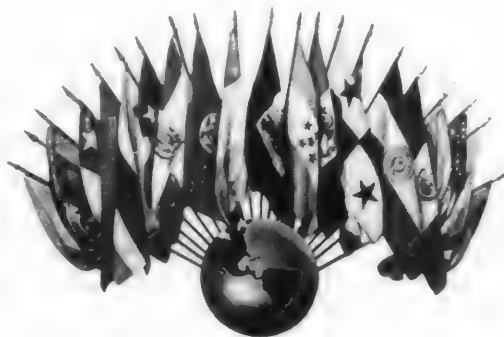
definitely acting the part of the player who periodically divides his winnings among his ruined fellow-players in order that the game may go on. In all the world, and particularly in this hemisphere, we have need for better living standards, greater purchasing power, and a larger number of consumers for the goods of a system of production that appears to have no limits to its growth. Today it would be possible with very little effort to give a vigorous impulse to the development of the Latin American nations. With the passing of time, and the interaction of political instability and the present economic disorganization, the task may well become one of reconstruction, such as that the American taxpayer is underwriting in Europe at the present time.

Hence the great significance of the preparatory work to be undertaken by the Inter-American Economic and Social Council before the meeting of the Buenos Aires Conference. I have gone into so much detail here in the desire to make it clear to you that we should not give undue weight to reports and comments that would present the difficulties encountered with the Economic Agreement at the Ninth Conference as evidence of a breakdown in the friendship and collaboration between the United States and Latin America. The problem has many angles to it, and it is not wholly understood even by the countries most vitally affected; so it is going to be necessary to work out a series of successive adjustments in this field that in the end will produce an economic cooperation among the Americas that will stand revealed as just as clear, easy, and simple as our political cooperation is today.

Many passing private interests, both here and in Latin America, will have to make way, and they will not do so without a fight. When business is good it has a

natural tendency to go conservative, and to shun every possibility of change. And at present we have some enterprises—although they are few and in a few hands—whose business is good and who are making the most of the commercial and industrial relations of the hemisphere. But above all this looms the desire to create in the Americas an order of justice and democracy. Without these two conditions, no one can survive in an age in which even the illiterate masses have at

their command the means of communication that makes it possible for them to learn how people are faring in the rest of the world. A strong Latin American economy will guarantee the permanence of the political institutions of those countries, and, in turn, the preservation of democracy. The help that the United States offers in the creation of these conditions in Latin America will in the end be but good insurance against the insecurity of our time.





# The New World Looks at Its Indians

ROBERT C. JONES

*Acting Chief, Division of Labor and Social Information, Pan American Union*

WHEN the first Spanish settlers arrived in the Western Hemisphere in the early 16th century they found many millions of people already long resident here whom they called "Indians." The tropical lowlands, the coastal regions, and the great plains were occupied for the most part by rude and simple tribes that subsisted largely on the products of the hunt and fishery. Some tribes in these areas were slightly more advanced and possessed a rudimentary agricultural economy but migrated as seasons, sources of food supply, and other conditions changed.

Some of those along the routes of the migration of early man in America had been stimulated by exchange of knowledge and goods and had developed large cities, complex political systems, elaborate arts, and a considerable body of organized information, including careful astronomical observations, an excellent calendrical system, and picture writing that closely approached a phonetic alphabet. Architecture was well developed and, at least indirectly, has influenced some of our own modern design.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *The cultures of these peoples were, of course, very complex and varied greatly. Professional anthropologists have done much to increase our knowledge and understanding of these differences and it has been found important to take into account their findings in the development of specific practical programs. These variations should not be forgotten in making such broad generalizations as have been made. Those interested in reading more along this line are referred to: Julian H. Steward's *The Changing American Indian*, in: Linton, Ralph—Editor, *The Science of Man in the World Crisis*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1945, pp. 282-304, and John Collier's *The Indians of the Americas*. New York, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1947, 326 p.*

With certain outstanding exceptions, the Indian peoples were rather easily conquered. Among the reasons for this were the failure of the natives of America to develop the wheel and to make use of iron. They did not have the horse or mule, and they had not acquired a coordinated mastery of military tactics. But perhaps the most important factors leading to their easy defeat were their lack of unity and the fact that, especially in the great Indian nations, the majority were not participants in a democratic society for whose survival they were willing to fight and die. They were a subjugated people who, on being enslaved by the Europeans, merely changed masters. The aborigines had developed a number of democratic institutions, but for the most part these were not widespread or were in a decadent condition. The most stubborn resistance was from the upper, more privileged classes whose authority and position were threatened, and the cream of Indian culture was lost with their annihilation.

The bulk of the Europeans settled in towns and cities in the same regions that had previously been heavily populated by the natives, and a great deal of mixture resulted. The Church, the *encomienda* system (a form of land grant), and the colonial government were the principal instruments of control. The number of colonists was not great enough, however, to overcome the enormous geographical barriers, so that a large percentage of the Indians who moved to the more remote



areas remained unassimilated. One of the worst features of their existence was that when they lost the best of their own culture, practically nothing was given them to take its place. They lived in a condition of degradation, without even the will to better their condition.

Little was known in the outside world regarding the life of these more isolated people of America up to the beginning of the present century. The studies that have been made and the historical documents, explorers' accounts, and church and government records that had been preserved were scattered and largely inaccessible. The *Handbook of the South American Indian*, which is being prepared under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution, will bring much of the best of this information together, including the most recent investigations, and will constitute a solid foundation from which to project future studies and investigations as well as practical programs. Three<sup>2</sup> of five projected volumes have so far been published. Additional field work is being carried forward through the Institute of Social Anthropology.<sup>3</sup>

Perhaps some 20 million persons are classed as Indians in the Western Hemisphere today.<sup>4</sup> If all persons visibly possessing any trace of Indian blood were to

be included in the enumeration, however, the number would probably be between sixty and eighty millions. Because of inadequate educational programs a large majority of those of pure blood cannot even today read or write their national language (Spanish or Portuguese). More than a third make exclusive use of their native language. The existence of this great socially isolated and economically submerged population is not only a menace to national unity, but also a heavy drag on national economies. Indians form a large part of the labor force available for the extraction of raw materials, but they cannot work effectively as long as they are undernourished, badly clothed, inadequately housed, and poorly paid. If their purchasing power were raised and standards of living improved, they would constitute an active market for manufactured goods and be more effective producers.

Statements at inter-American gatherings on behalf of the Indian population of America date back to at least the First International American Scientific Congress, held at Buenos Aires in 1910, when the organization of national protective societies was advocated and geographical studies of the regions inhabited by Indians suggested so that they might be better incorporated into modern life. The Third Pan American Scientific Congress at Lima, Peru, at the end of 1924 recommended the integral study of the indigenous agrarian problem. The Sixth Pan American Child Congress, held in the same city in 1930, recommended that improved educational facilities be provided the Indian population and the information regarding its problems and needs be more widely disseminated.

*Demography that the procedure followed by Mexico in its 1940 Census be followed by other countries. The Inter-American Statistical Institute in cooperation with the Inter-American Indian Institute and other interested agencies and organizations is working on this problem.*

<sup>2</sup> Vol. 1, *The Marginal Tribes: Vol. II, The Andean Civilizations Vol. III, The Tribes of the Tropical Forests and Savannas*; all edited by Julian H. Steward.

<sup>3</sup> See: Foster, George M., *The Institute of Social Anthropology. The Record* (U. S. Department of State), June 1947, p. 7-10.

<sup>4</sup> At best these estimates are only general approximations, for accurate and recent census data are available in only a very few countries. Furthermore, the classification "Indian" is a very flexible concept subject to a great variety of interpretations. It has been found to be practically impossible to define strictly biological characteristics in such a way as to enable certain portions of the population to be accurately enumerated. Superficial skin pigmentation and other physical characteristics have been surrounded with such subjective values in most cases as to have little objective significance. Cultural and economic differentiations have been found to be usually more important. In that regard it was recommended at the First Inter-American Congress of

The Seventh International Conference of American States, held at Montevideo in 1933, charged the Pan American Union with the organization of an Inter-American Conference of Experts on Indian Life. The Seventh American Scientific Congress, which met at Mexico City in 1935, had a section devoted to the study of Indian problems and a number of suggestions were made regarding the promotion of Indian welfare, including child welfare, health, education, and vocational training. The Second General Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, which took place at Washington, D. C., the same year, recommended the establishment of scientific institutes to study the situation of the Indian people in those countries having a large indigenous population. The Third International Conference on Education, meeting at Mexico City in 1937, considered this project further. Finally the Eighth International Conference of American States (Lima, 1938) announced that the First Inter-American Conference on Indian Life, which had been previously suggested, would be held the following year and urged that all countries appoint delegates. It was also recommended that a center be established for the study, compilation, and exchange of data and information on the status of the indigenous populations and on the process of their integration into national life. After some delay this meeting was held at Pátzcuaro, Mexico, from April 14 to 24, 1940.

The program at that meeting was divided into sections on education, health, legislation, and socio-economic matters, with a sub-section devoted to Indian arts and crafts. Proposals were set forth to improve the diet, sanitary facilities, and housing of Indians. Adequate means for pre-natal and child care were recommended, and it was suggested that doctors

and nurses be specially trained to serve the native groups and that medical centers be established in the regions where these are located. Problems of the distribution of land to Indians, the protection of small individual and collective holdings, the prevention and control of soil erosion, and the development of irrigation projects were discussed. Linguistic experiments were also given serious consideration.<sup>5</sup>

Particularly important among the accomplishments of the Conference was the establishment of a permanent Inter-American Indian Institute at Mexico City to serve as a clearing house for data relating to the Indians of the American republics. A convention<sup>6</sup> was drawn up which, in addition to providing for this central coordinating agency, stipulates that each participating country shall organize a national Indian institute of its own to serve as a liaison body. The agreement was available for signature November 1, 1946 and had been ratified by fourteen countries by the end of 1947. Ten of these national institutes have been established.

Since the First Inter-American Congress of Indian Life other conferences have considered the problems confronting Indians and Indian communities, and those who are interested in bettering conditions for the Indians have become better acquainted. The Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, held at Mexico City in 1942, recommended that the cooperation of agronomists from the agricultural schools and other agencies should be utilized in programs related to the improvement of the situation of the indigenous population in rural areas. The First Con-

<sup>5</sup> See the Final Act: First Inter-American Conference of Indian Life, Pátzcuaro, Michoacán, Mexico. Washington, U. S. Office of Indian Affairs, 1941.

<sup>6</sup> See Inter-American Indian Institute. Convention Between the United States of America and Certain Other American Republics. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1942, p. 46.

ference of Ministers and Directors of Education of the American Republics, which convened at Panama in 1943, recommended the establishment of educational programs to improve the standard of living and working conditions of the Indian population. The enactment of legislative measures to protect that population was also advocated.

The First Inter-American Demographic Congress (Mexico City, 1943) adopted various resolutions regarding the problems of Indians and related these to the basic requirements of the general welfare. It was urged that definite steps be taken to raise the economic and cultural level of this group so that it might actively participate in national life.

The new Charter of the Organization of American States gives as one of the principal functions of the Inter-American Cultural Council to promote "the adoption of special programs of training, education and culture for the indigenous groups of the American countries."

Several offices of the Pan American Union, including the Division of Labor and Social Information, have given attention to the problems of the Indian population and have encouraged cooperative action in meeting their needs. The Pan American Sanitary Bureau and certain international organizations, such as the International Labor Organization and UNESCO, have also shown some interest.

It is the responsibility of the Inter-American Indian Institute to coordinate and aid the program of the various national institutes, to make available to them information regarding the experience of other countries in the same field, and to offer the advice of its technical staff in connection with their various projects. The Institute also serves as the secretariat of the Inter-American Indian Conferences. It is governed by a Board of

Directors that meets ordinarily every two years and is composed of one member and one alternate from each country party to the convention. There is also an executive committee, composed of five members and the Director of the Institute. Dr. Manuel Gamio, a distinguished Mexican anthropologist, is the present director.

The Institute publishes a quarterly review, *América Indígena*, and a news supplement, *Boletín Indigenista*. The Institute rents an attractive building at Liverpool 2, Mexico City, and is gradually developing a library. A central bibliography on Indian affairs is also in preparation. The budget is at present limited to \$30,500 a year but efforts are being made to have this increased.

In the past, interest in the improvement of the condition of the Indians has been largely restricted to local areas and regions. It was not until the Pátzcuaro conference that any considerable number of persons began to conceive of reform in hemispheric terms. But even at Pátzcuaro, although many countries were represented and members of the white and Indian races were present as delegates, the problems of the Indians were largely considered in isolation from those of the remainder of the population. Much of the inspiration for improvement has come from so-called Indianist movements, resembling nationalistic awakenings, on the part of indigenous peoples within specific countries. Only gradually have the basic needs of the Indians been seen as part of those of the whole nation. Even slower, of course, has been the development of recognition of the advantages of international cooperation in improving conditions.

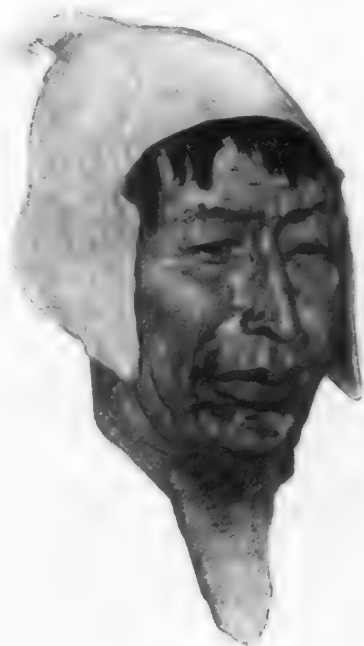
Although the influence of modern civilization is reaching the remotest regions, its effect upon the life of the Indian masses of America has been more in the way of stimulating new desires and increas-

ing frustration than in meeting fundamental needs. The airplane and the building of the transcontinental highways with their tributary roads are doing much to open up isolated areas. It is imperative that they bring benefits with them as well. A more equitable distribution of professional services, which so far have been largely concentrated in the cities, is one of the improvements that can be made. Even the new schools of social work, which are training workers how to understand and how to meet social needs, have not given much attention as yet to improving the condition of the rural population, and far less to bettering the lot of the Indian. If adequately supported and properly oriented, these schools could do much to help.

A period of self-conscious aggressiveness is probably ahead for the Indian masses

of America until such time as they reach a position of relative equality. Whether this rising demand that conditions be improved will be constructively channeled depends upon the wisdom and good will of their own leaders, of the countries in which they live, and of the international organizations that are increasingly assuming responsibility for undeveloped regions and for the Indian population. The entire future of certain countries where Indians are numerically important, such as Mexico, Guatemala, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia, depends upon how the so-called "Indian problem" is solved. Indians must again be able to be a proud, self-confident people facing the future with courage. The contribution they can make to modern civilization should be recognized and the best of their culture utilized for the enrichment of all.

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PEDRO-ALANUCA  
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PORTRAITS OF INDIANS

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VENANCIO AND JESÚS CHUQUICHAMPI (PERU)



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PEDRO DE LA CRUZ (TARASCAN, MEXICO)





Tomás Velásquez  
Chichicastenango  
8 Sept 1907  
E. Comins

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TOMÁS VELÁSQUEZ (GUATEMALA)

## The United States and Cuba Celebrate an Anniversary

AT A joint session of Congress on April 19, 1948, the United States observed with colorful ceremony the 50th anniversary of the joint resolution recognizing Cuba's right to independence.<sup>1</sup> Two days after passage of the resolution the United States declared war on Spain, and its troops joined Cuban soldiers in the conflict.

Many government officials and ambassadors of foreign governments were present at the capitol, and the galleries were crowded, as President Truman and Dr.

<sup>1</sup> WHEREAS the abhorrent conditions which have existed for more than three years in the Island of Cuba, so near our own borders, have shocked the moral sense of the people of the United States, have been a disgrace to Christian civilization, culminating, as they have, in the destruction of a United States battle ship, with two hundred and sixty-six of its officers and crew, while on a friendly visit in the harbor of Havana, and can not longer be endured, as has been set forth by the President of the United States in his message to Congress of April eleventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, upon which the action of Congress was invited: Therefore,

RESOLVED by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,

*First.* That the people of the Island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent.

*Second.* That it is the duty of the United States to demand, and the Government of the United States does hereby demand, that the Government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the Island of Cuba and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters.

*Third.* That the President of the United States be, and he hereby is, directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States, and to call into the actual service of the United States the militia of the several States, to such extent as may be necessary to carry these resolutions into effect.

*Fourth.* That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said Island except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the Island to its people.

Guillermo Belt, the Cuban Ambassador to the United States and member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, recalled half a century of friendship between their nations.

The chamber was banked with red, white, and blue flowers—the colors of both Cuba and the United States—and a color guard presented the flags of the two countries as a drum and bugle corps sounded ruffles and flourishes. Following the invocation, the red-coated United States Marine Corps Band orchestra played a medley of songs from the Spanish-American War period, and the Cuban national anthem was sung.

In his address the President reviewed the circumstances that preceded the outbreak of war. He said in part: "The struggle for Cuban independence, like every other effort of its kind, was fraught with hardship and disappointment. But the unconquerable determination of the Cuban people to win freedom overcame all obstacles. . . . Americans watched with admiration the beginning of the final struggle for independence led by José Martí and his valiant compatriots, Gómez, Maceo, and García. Our people made increasingly plain their desire to assist the Cuban patriots. . . . This joint resolution, the foundation upon which our relations with the Cuban Republic are based, brought the military and naval forces of the United States into the conflict at the side of the Cuban patriots. . . . On August 12, Spain signed the protocol of peace and agreed to give up Cuba and withdraw her forces. The dream of José Martí became at last a glorious reality."



Courtesy of Cuban Tourist Commission

#### MONUMENT TO GENERAL MÁXIMO GÓMEZ, HABANA

General Gómez was commander-in-chief of the Cuban forces during the War of Independence.

The President cited the increasingly close relations between Cuba and the United States as proof that nations of greatly dissimilar size and culture may live together in peace, and commented that "the history of Cuban-American relations demonstrates that when people of different countries enjoy opportunities for frequent personal contacts and a free exchange of information and knowledge, their ties of friendship grow stronger through the years." The President continued:

. . . The same harmonious relationship can prevail among all nations, provided they possess a genuine desire for peace and a firm resolve to respect the freedom and the rights of others.

This is a truth the whole world should take to heart. The basic requirement for peace and understanding is the *will* that peace and understanding shall prevail. The will to avoid war

and to seek an understanding that precludes all violence and aggression is one of the most profound and universal concepts held by the peoples of this earth. I am convinced that the plain people of the world, of whatever race or nationality, desire nothing more passionately than freedom for themselves and for others—freedom to be left in peace to earn their daily bread after their own fashion—freedom to leave their neighbors in peace to do likewise.

The Ambassador of Cuba was presented by the Speaker of the House. In his response to President Truman's address, Dr. Belt said:

It is with the deepest emotion that I appear before the Congress of the United States on the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Joint Resolution, to express once more the undying gratitude, the warm affection, and the sincere friendship of my people for the American people.

This is indeed a fitting occasion to commemorate that Resolution which played such a decisive role

in the future destiny of my country, not only recognizing at a crucial moment of our long struggle for liberation the right of the people of Cuba to live in freedom and independence, but also disclaiming any intention to exercise sovereignty, control, or jurisdiction over the island.

Our confused and troubled world of today can derive a splendid lesson from that Resolution, which genuinely and sincerely expressed the sentiments of the American people.

Since the beginning of Cuba's century-long struggle for freedom and independence, our patriots always had the decided help and warm sympathy of the American people and of the American press. That support was viewed with suspicion by a malicious world which saw in the protection of a mighty power for a small island, nothing more than a secret desire for annexation.

The Joint Resolution and the policy of the United States towards Cuba in the last fifty years are the best answer to those who could not conceive that the noble American people are not only always ready to fight for their own freedom and independence, but likewise to shed their blood generously and to sacrifice their lives for the liberation of all the peoples of the earth who are suffering from tyranny and oppression.

As President Truman has so rightly said, the relations between our two countries are a shining example of how nations with different languages, traditions, and culture, may be drawn closely and sincerely together through the strong bonds of mutual respect and trust.

Cuba and the United States offer eloquent proof that the small and the great, the weak and the powerful, can live in harmony and peace when they share the same fundamental concepts of justice, democracy, and liberty.

Dr. Belt then referred to the conference from which he had just come, saying:

At this very moment, the Ninth Inter-American Conference is meeting at Bogotá, defying whatever powers of darkness there may be, with the firm determination to complete an organic pact designed to regulate in a democratic way the relations among the American States.

Let us take this opportunity to say unequivocally to all the world that here in *this* hemisphere, nations can freely associate themselves, not on a basis of coercion and intimidation, but on a plane of equality and mutual respect; that in the inter-American system we do not permit special privileges to the so-called Big Powers—not even

the veto or a permanent seat. Let us remind the world that in this hemisphere there is a great nation with no need for an iron curtain to safeguard its frontiers or to maintain its prosperity.

The strength of that nation and the strength of our inter-American system rest on our firm determination to stand by the principles which gave birth to a free America.

May God give us the courage and the spirit to defend and preserve our precious heritage, so that the lives of our liberators may not have been sacrificed in vain.

Dr. Belt's address was followed by the singing of *America* and after the benediction, a march played by the orchestra accompanied the retirement of colors.

While the ceremonies in Washington were taking place, the anniversary was being observed also in Habana. Members of the Cuban Cabinet, the chiefs of the armed forces, the American Ambassador, R. Henry Norweb, and representatives of several veterans' organizations attended the commemorative ceremony at the Presidential Palace, and President Ramón Grau San Martín made an address that was broadcast to the public over a nationwide hook-up. Referring to the joint resolution as "a noble gesture of high-mindedness and solidarity that the Cuban people can never forget," President Grau San Martín spoke in part as follows:

#### CUBANS:

Cuba and the United States commemorate today the fiftieth anniversary of the joint resolution adopted by the Federal Congress in Washington that recognized the inalienable right of the Cuban people to freedom and independence.

The idea of the liberation of Cuba, born of a profoundly democratic historic impulse, was always most warmly supported by the sister countries of the continent. Many American countries offered valuable aid and humanitarian refuge to the Cuban liberators in their struggle for the emancipation of their oppressed fatherland.

Public opinion in the United States solidified in favor of the independence of the island. The press and the outstanding men of the country viewed our cause with enthusiastic sympathy,

placing themselves firmly at our side in the terrible duel between freedom and oppression that had begun on Cuban soil. The spirit of solidarity of the joint resolution of the American Congress was the happy culmination of the long period of understanding between the Cuban patriots and the great people of the United States. It marked the beginning of a new and fruitful stage in the relations between the two countries, and eloquently sealed a friendship that was later to take on the character of historic collaboration.

At the evocation of that spirit, Cubans and Americans were to march forward together to defend and strengthen freedom in the world. And in later years new and different circumstances were to unite them, again and again, in the struggle to restore rights that had been violated. With the same creative impulse and the same force of conviction they were to embrace one and the same cause, to protect the most precious treasure of America: freedom.

It is with legitimate rejoicing that we celebrate today a date of notable achievement in American history, which gives proof of the great value and the enormous power represented by man's understanding of the common task of mutual cooperation. The joint resolution of the Congress of the United States is a noble gesture of highminded-

ness and solidarity that the Cuban people can never forget, one that may be offered to the world as a splendid example of sincere and constructive friendship.

Two months earlier, on February 15, the two nations had commemorated the fiftieth anniversary of the sinking of the *Maine* with ceremonies before the monument to the victims of the tragedy, in Habana. A delegation of Congressmen and leaders of the United Spanish War Veterans traveled to Cuba for the observances, and the men of four United States Navy units which were in Habana harbor for the occasion marched in a parade with members of the Habana American Legion post. Addresses were made by President Grau San Martín, the American Ambassador, and Senator Dennis Chavez. Troops of the Cuban army marched in review. A band played the national anthems of Cuba and the United States, and closed the ceremony with a hymn.

## Pan American Week in Washington

JUDITH E. PERKINS

*Editorial Division, Pan American Union*

PAN AMERICAN DAY, April 14, 1948, marked the 58th anniversary of the Pan American Union. The people of Washington took this occasion to demonstrate their faith in Pan American solidarity and in the Pan American Union by a number of interesting activities.

### *Pan American Day concert*

The central celebration was the concert given at the Pan American Union on Wednesday evening, April 14, in the impressive, flag-draped Hall of the Ameri-

cas. The performers were the excellent concert orchestra of the United States Air Force Band, conducted by Major George S. Howard, and Olga Coelho, the popular Brazilian soprano and guitarist, who is well known in the United States for her appearances in concert and over the radio.

Preceding the concert, Dr. Amos E. Taylor, Director of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, who was acting in charge during the absence of the Director General of the Pan American

Union at Bogotá, made a brief address to the audience. Explaining the significance of Pan American Day, Dr. Taylor described it as "a commemorative symbol of the sovereignty of the American nations and the voluntary union of all in one continental community." He further stated that the theme for the 1948 observance of Pan American Day is that *The Americas Must Serve Mankind*—a theme which, in these troubled times, gives "a new meaning to the spirit of international cooperation among peoples everywhere."

The varied and interesting program of the concert included the following numbers:

THE UNITED STATES AIR FORCE CONCERT  
ORCHESTRA  
MAJOR GEORGE S. HOWARD  
Chief of Bands and Music, USAF

OLGA COELHO, Brazilian Soprano and Guitarist

I

Première Ouverture de Concert

Zamba Alberto Williams  
Terig Tucci  
PAUL C. WOLFE, violin solo  
Campo—Poema Sinfónico Eduardo Fabini

THE ORCHESTRA

II

Fray Antón Felipe Pedrell (editor)  
Arr. for guitar by Andrés Segovia  
O Cessate di Piagarmi Alessandro Scarlatti  
Arr. for guitar by Andrés Segovia  
C'est mon Ami

Anonymous XVIII Century Composer  
Arr. for guitar by Olga Coelho  
Canción de Cuna Andrés Segovia  
Xangô Heitor Villa-Lobos  
Arr. by Olga Coelho

OLGA COELHO  
with guitar

III

De Blanca Tierra  
M. Béclard-d'Harcourt (editor)  
Arr. by Olga Coelho  
O Rei Mandou me Chamá Heitor Villa-Lobos  
Eu Vou m'Embora Camargo Guarnieri

Agáchate el Sombrero Traditional  
La Resbalosa Traditional  
El Escondido Traditional

Arr. by Isabel Aretz

OLGA COELHO  
with guitar

INTERMISSION

IV

Suite Kiskaya Justin Elie  
Radio Themes in Symphonic Style  
Howard Cable  
Tico-Tico Zequinha d'Abreu  
Arr. by Drake  
PAUL M. DOLBY, marimba solo  
Canto Moruno Tomás Moscovo

THE ORCHESTRA

The performance of the soloists was greeted with enthusiastic applause, and the selections played by the Air Force Concert Orchestra were also warmly received because of their excellent interpretation and skillful execution.

Olga Coelho's background is as vivid as her personality. She was born in Manaus, the famous inland center of the Brazilian rubber boom, but when still a child, she was taken by her parents to the old city of Bahia, on the northeast seacoast of Brazil. It was here that Olga Coelho, exposed as she was to the songs of the sea, the tunes of the street vendors, and the negro melodies, first became acquainted with folklore and folk music. Later, when she was studying piano at the Conservatory of Music at Rio de Janeiro, she found (to the dismay of her teachers) that she infinitely preferred to accompany her singing on the guitar. She soon became a proficient guitarist and has used the instrument ever since when giving recitals throughout the world.

In 1936 the Brazilian government bestowed an unprecedented honor on Olga Coelho. She was appointed a duly authorized representative and exponent of the best in Brazilian folk music and sent



Dimitri Wolkonsky

#### OLGA COELHO AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The much admired Brazilian singer appears with her compatriot, Mrs. Charles G. Fenwick, and Dr. Amos E. Taylor, Director of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the Pan American Union, acting in charge during the absence of the Director General at Bogotá.

on a world-wide tour to promote the music of her country. Since then, she has won respect and admiration throughout five continents.

Senhora Coelho's repertoire of songs, collected from countries all over the world, encompasses a wide range of classical, folk, and modern music. Olin Downes, music critic of the *New York Times*, has best expressed what many among her admirers feel: "Olga Coelho is the most finished and most eloquent interpreter of folk music that this reviewer has yet encountered."

#### *Anniversary dinner*

In celebration of the Pan American Union's birthday, the Washington Board

of Trade sponsored a banquet at the Mayflower Hotel on Tuesday evening, April 13. Attending the affair was a large and brilliant gathering of Washington notables, including members of the Union's Governing Board, Latin American diplomats and their wives, and high Government officials. Guests from the Pan American Union occupied three tables. The occasion was especially significant in that it was the first time the Pan American Union had been thus honored by the citizens of Washington.

Pan American Day, said the Honorable George V. Allen, Assistant Secretary of State for Public Affairs, is an occasion on which we celebrate the friendship existing among twenty-one sovereign States. In

the course of his address, which opened the banquet program, Mr. Allen made the following interesting comments:

Because they are very much in all our minds, I must refer at the outset to the tragic events that have momentarily interrupted the deliberations of the Bogotá Conference in the last few days. I shall not undertake to comment extensively on these events. However, there are two things that I must say to you, knowing that they express the sentiments of the American people and of all of you here tonight. The first is that we sympathize from the bottom of our hearts with the people of Colombia in their hour of sudden tragedy, and are confident that nothing can prevent Colombia from continuing its forward march as one of the most progressive and respected of the American republics. The other is that only persons who have momentarily lost their perspective will allow themselves to believe that the occurrences in Bogotá can represent any kind of setback to Pan Americanism or in any way alter its progress. The Ninth International Conference of American States will, like its predecessors over more than half a century, serve to knit still more closely the sturdy fabric of inter-American relations.

Pan American Day, which has dawned for us here a few hours ahead of the calendar, is an occasion on which we celebrate friendship among nations—not friendship as an ideal only, but friendship as an accomplished fact among twenty-one sovereign States. That friendship is epitomized in this gathering. It is epitomized in the person of my good friend at this table, the Ambassador of Honduras, who in the course of many years as the well beloved representative of his country in Washington has become a personal symbol of the friendliness and good will that animate the relations of the good-neighbor republics. The friendship among our countries is, in fact, reflected in the personal respect and liking that we all feel for the distinguished representatives from our neighbor countries who have foregathered with us this evening.

The answer to any question that might be raised as to whether we, in this country, appreciate the blessings of our inter-American friendship is suggested by the spontaneous manner in which citizens of Washington have organized this occasion as a demonstration of their active support. This is of the utmost significance, since it is the private citizens who are, ultimately, the makers of our foreign policy. If the citizens are apathetic, if they lack vision and insight into what is re-

quired to make and maintain peace, if they fail in their appreciation of what has been accomplished, then there is little hope for us. If, however, they demonstrate the positive vision and appreciation that have been manifested by the people of Washington in the organization of this celebration, we cannot fail to master the future. This sort of demonstration is immensely encouraging to the officials of a government that must represent the people. Mr. Morris and his associates are, I think, to be warmly congratulated. . . .

Because the work of every inter-American conference is the achievement of mutual compromise, in which all participate, there is no victory on the part of some and defeat on the part of others. The reaching of agreement is, rather, a victory for all, since that was the common purpose. A struggle for power, such as we are familiar with elsewhere today, is a different matter. Within the family of American states, the struggle is simply for justice and the common good. . . .

I am privileged to be Chairman of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Cultural and Scientific Cooperation, through which this Government is able to meet the requests of other American governments by assigning meteorologists, soil technicians, fisheries experts, and trained personnel in a vast number of other fields to work with them. In cultural fields, a large program for the interchange of students, teachers, and publications has been carried forward, and this country has benefited substantially from the contributions that the other American republics have made to our culture by this means. Through the recently reincorporated Institute of Inter-American Affairs, this Government is participating actively with the other governments in carefully planned, long-range action programs for national development in health and sanitation, agriculture, and education. Persons who see these Institute programs in the field for the first time are amazed at the extent and character of their accomplishments. . . .

The one concept I should like to stress above all others tonight is that cooperation among the American republics is founded, and must always be founded, on the concept of mutuality. All of the republics must help each other and must learn from each other. . . .

We are receiving and must continue to receive in return the great social and cultural contributions which others of our sister republics have to offer the United States. Effective cooperation represents the will to give and to receive by all parties. . . .



Mr. Allen's closing words emphasized what the American republics have accomplished. He said:

To one who, like myself, has for some years past been preoccupied with international relations in other parts of this turbulent globe, it is impossible not to view the relations that have developed and are continuing to develop in this Hemisphere with a sense of vast encouragement and gratification. We American republics have our differences, but we manage to settle these differences peacefully and amicably. Our friendship grows stronger in the process of their settlement. Now, when we talk about peace on earth we don't mean an earth on which there are no differences of opinion. We mean, simply, an earth on which differences of opinion are settled by peaceful means. In that light, the long-term achievement of the American republics is outstanding in history and in the context of present relations among nations generally. It is an achievement that, without due complacency, we can celebrate this evening with very good consciences indeed.

In reply to Mr. Allen, His Excellency the Ambassador of Honduras, Dr. Julián R. Cáceres, spoke as follows:

The representatives of the American Republics are delighted and honored to be your guests tonight at this celebration of the fifty-eighth anniversary of the Pan American Union.

Mr. Allen made plain in his welcome that you think, speak, and feel in the language of Pan Americanism.

This token of your affection warms our hearts.

We have always felt at home with you and with all the citizens of Washington.

It will be an honor to tell our respective governments and peoples of your hospitality and understanding. We shall be proud to do so.

Tonight our thoughts turn back to the far-sighted pioneers of Pan Americanism. They foresaw this moral, economic, and cultural unity of the Americas that inspires all of us gathered here and many, many more.

Our thoughts turn back to Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives, who in 1822 advocated an American League of Human Liberties to unite the nations from Hudson Bay to Cape Horn.

We never forget James Monroe, who just a year later declared, in an historic message, that the States of the New World had acquired the right

to independence; that the United States would block any further European attempt to colonize this continent; that the United States would oppose any and all European meddling in the affairs of the Americas.

I might also mention José Cecilio del Valle, born in Honduras, author of the Declaration of Independence of Central America, who, in February 1822, concurring with other Americans of vision, drafted a plan to protect the nations of this hemisphere from foreign invaders.

He sought a federation of the American States to develop their economic resources and regulate their trade. He proposed a solemn pact for reciprocal assistance against foreign invasion or internal dissension.

But above all, I must recall the name of Simón Bolívar, father of liberty in five countries to the South. He invited the governments to the Panama Congress to subscribe to a treaty which would defend the sovereignty and independence of the American nations against all foreign domination. Now in the halls of glory he stands beside George Washington, the father of this great American country.

In the hall where the Ninth International Conference of American States is meeting, Secretary of State Marshall pointed to Bolívar, present there in a magnificent mural. He related how, during the battle of Okinawa, where more than 100,000 Japanese totalitarians met their doom, General Simon Bolivar Buckner died there defending the Americas. Secretary Marshall implied that when the liberty, independence, or sovereignty of the American Continent is at stake, there will always be a Simón Bolívar on the field of battle.

This anniversary observance also is in tribute to James G. Blaine, an illustrious predecessor of Secretary Marshall.

Secretary Blaine extended invitations for the first Inter-American Conference. That conference was in session, here in Washington, from October 2, 1889 to April 19, 1890.

In the invitations Secretary Blaine stated, with a great sense of juridical equality, that the United States would participate in that Conference on the same basis as other American nations as "one among many, coordinated and equal within themselves."

Even today that declaration is surprising to some nations on the other side of the Atlantic, but from that day to this Pan Americanism has developed in ever-increasing understanding, cooperation, and good will.

Those were the basic principles of the Good



Chase-Stuttler

#### PAN AMERICAN DAY BANQUET

"The long-term achievement of the American Republics is outstanding in history," said the Honorable George V. Allen, one of the speakers of the evening.

Neighbor Policy upheld by Franklin Delano Roosevelt in his inaugural address on March 4, 1933 and in his talk at the Woodrow Wilson Foundation in December of the same year. Those pronouncements were as historic as his 1937 Chicago speech advocating the quarantine of the totalitarian powers which were extending their sinister grip towards free countries.

The peoples and the Governments of the Americas joined hands 58 years ago to forge their common destinies. They began with commercial agreements but have achieved lasting accomplishments in the field of Pan Americanism.

At Rio de Janeiro in 1947 the American republics bound themselves to consider an armed attack against any American State as an attack against each and every one of them. That insures the survival of each and every one of the American republics against any eventuality.

The American republics gave vital form to the moral forces of right and justice in that Treaty of Rio. They condemned aggression, whether from inside or outside the continent.

I recall hearing Senator Vandenberg's earnest argument that "crimes against peace and justice cannot be confined within latitudes and longi-

tudes"; that the United States was "anxious that creation of the defense region should imply no lack of interest in world peace outside that region nor condone war crimes wherever they occur."

What a coincidence!

There, in that same city of Rio, on July 31, 1906, at the opening of the Third Pan American Conference, Elihu Root, Secretary of State, declared:

"We wish for no victories but those of peace; for no territory except our own; for no sovereignty except the sovereignty over ourselves.

"We deem the independence and equal rights of the smallest and weakest member of the family of nations entitled to as much respect as those of the greatest empire.

"We deem the observance of that respect the chief guaranty of the weak against the oppression of the strong."

The Inter-American system is based on those principles.

Those same principles of solidarity, of mutual aid and defense, and of non-intervention in the internal affairs of another nation are being reaffirmed and incorporated in the Charter of the Organization of American States, an organization

which, as you know, is recognized by the Charter of the United Nations.

The American Republics have also drafted an inter-American pact for the peaceful solution of any controversies. Likewise, basic principles will be affirmed to strengthen economic relationships of the American nations in their common effort to attain a higher scale of living and greater enjoyment of the happiness to which all men are entitled.

But the New World also has international responsibilities.

We cannot blind ourselves to this paradoxical era in which political minorities strive to become decisive majorities by threat or by force.

Secretary Marshall said on March 28 at the University of California: "This is a world-wide struggle between freedom and tyranny, between the self-rule of the many as opposed to the dictatorship of the few."

The countries of the New World would rather face danger, sacrifice their lives and their goods, than lose their liberty and their independence.

An oriental legend relates that Buddha, while walking in a mountainous region with his disciples, encountered a woman weeping bitterly.

"Go, find out why that woman weeps," Buddha commanded.

Returning, a disciple explained: "She weeps because some years ago at this very place her father was devoured by the lions; the beasts killed her husband a few years ago. One of her sons has just met the same fate."

"And why," Buddha asked, "does this woman continue to live in such a dangerous place?"

"I prefer to live here," the woman said, "rather than submit to the iniquities of tyrants."

That is America: North America, Central America, South America.

Our geographic trilogy is one in cultural and economic unity. It is tied together in Pan American unity. It is one by virtue of the spirit. It is one in defense of its democratic institutions; in defense of its integrity; in defense of its sovereignty.

The three are one by common destiny in the perils of war or the blessings of peace.

Today, on this 58th anniversary of the Pan American Union, let us all, as one, say with José Cecilio del Valle that the proper study of true citizens of the Americas is the study of the Americas.

Another event of the evening was the appearance of the famous Inka Taky Trio of Peru, who, dressed in gay cos-

tumes of rich fabrics encrusted with gold and silver, gave a colorful and dramatic performance of ancient Peruvian songs and dances. The instruments used for accompaniment were a guitar, a reed flute (like those of pre-Columbian days), and a small native drum. Imma Sumack, star of the trio, has an amazing soprano voice which has frequently been compared to that of Lily Pons. She and the other two members of her group made their Washington debut in the summer of 1946, when they gave a performance in the Aztec Garden of the Pan American Union. They returned for a second engagement on Pan American Day last year.

#### *Department of Agriculture luncheon*

On Pan American Day, April 14, the Honorable Clinton P. Anderson, Secretary of Agriculture, was host at a luncheon for the Ambassadors of the Latin American republics and other officials of their Embassies interested in agricultural matters. Also present were Dr. Taylor, of the Pan American Union; Mr. José L. Colom, Chief of the Union's Agricultural Division; and several of the Department of Agriculture's Latin American trainees.

Under the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation, various Federal agencies are providing opportunities to persons from other American republics for technical, professional, and administrative training. Covering a period from one to fifteen months, training projects are designed to fit the particular needs of each individual country for trained personnel in specialized fields. Trainees are carefully selected by Federal agencies, with the help of recommendations from the other governments and from the American Embassies. The men and women chosen have usually had advanced study, as well as some

experience in their fields of specialty, and in most cases are already in government service.

The experience of working in a Federal agency is often supplemented by study at universities and by observation and training in private agencies and institutions. At this writing, the Department of Agriculture has 13 trainees in Washington, who were sent from Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Chile, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, and Peru. In addition, there are approximately 35 other Latin Americans in agricultural training in different parts of the country.

At the Pan American Day luncheon of the Department of Agriculture, Secretary Anderson expressed gratitude to the Pan American Union and to other inter-American organizations for the excellent work they had done in the agricultural field. Because of this, the Secretary said that he was glad to have the Department of Agriculture cooperate with these organizations wherever possible and hoped that such cooperation would be continued.

Mr. Colom then spoke on the Pan American Union's projects in agriculture that are being carried out in collaboration with agencies of the United States Government and of the other American republics. The Ambassador of Honduras also said a few words in regard to inter-American cooperation in agricultural matters and the continental importance of the trainee program.

#### *Radio forum and television show*

On Sunday, April 11, a radio forum was broadcast over station WBBC on the subject of *The Pan American Union as a Model for World Peace*. Two members of the Union staff, Dr. J. Silvado Bueno, Foreign Trade Adviser, and Lewis Ortega of the Division of Economic Information, participated in the discussion. In view of

the week-end events, the discussion centered around the disorders in Colombia and their possible effect on the future of Pan Americanism and the Pan American Union. The conclusion was reached that the nature of the Colombian disturbances was such as to bind the nations of this hemisphere more closely together, and that the position of the Pan American Union had been strengthened, rather than weakened, as a result.

Latin American song and dance were featured on a 30-minute television show, sponsored by the Pan American Union, and performed over station WMAL on Thursday, April 15. Among the numbers presented were: two Brazilian carnival songs; folk songs from Colombia, Peru, and Brazil; and folk dances from Mexico, Colombia, Panama, and Venezuela. Two staff members of the Pan American Union, Elizabeth Hastings and José Martínez, were among those taking part in the program.

#### *Other events*

Numerous other celebrations in connection with the anniversary of the Pan American Union were held throughout Washington. Among these was the musical program presented by the active Club de las Américas on Thursday, April 15, dedicated to the republic of Bolivia. Señora Raquel de Ichazo of Bolivia spoke on the native music of her country, and recorded Bolivian folk music was played.

Pan American Day was observed by International House on Friday night, April 16, with a lively fiesta of Latin American folk songs and dancing. Present at the gathering was Dr. Philip Leonard Green of the Economic Information Division of the Pan American Union, who gave a talk on the future of Pan Americanism. Dr. Green spoke a second time on Sunday the 18th, when he addressed the Young

Adults' Forum at the Epiphany Church. His subject that evening was Pan American problems.

Fernando Chaves Núñez of the Division of Social and Labor Information spoke at Gallaudet College.

The Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress exhibited several old and new books on the city of Bogotá and a complete set of the documents prepared by the Pan American Union for the Ninth International Conference of American States.



Harris and Ewing

#### PAN AMERICAN WINDOW

During Pan American Week in Washington, Harris and Ewing displayed their photographs of members of the Governing Board and officials of the Pan American Union.

# The Ninth Pan American Child Congress

KATHARINE F. LENROOT

*Chief, U. S. Children's Bureau, Social Security Administration, Federal Security Agency*

WHEN the Eighth Pan American Child Congress met at Washington, D. C., in 1942, the world was at war. The delegates from the twenty-one American Republics were primarily concerned with measures which would provide the maximum of protection for childhood in the midst of the serious conditions then prevailing or the menace of a future still unknown, and would strengthen the agencies and institutions for inter-American cooperation to achieve this aim.

The Ninth Pan American Child Congress, which met at Caracas January 5-10, 1948, was able to devote itself to the projects of peace; to the strengthening and extension of basic services for maternal and child health and welfare; to the prevention of diseases which take their toll of childhood, such as tuberculosis and nutritional deficiencies; to the provision of a sound legislative basis for the protection of childhood. But it did more than this.

In his magnificent address at the opening plenary session of the Congress on January 5, the Minister of Health and Social Assistance, Dr. Edmundo Fernández, told the delegates: "The children of America await your conclusions in security and confidence, but with ingenuous curiosity they ask: 'What of the children of other continents? Do not forget them.'"

Heeding this admonition, the Congress recognized the sufferings of children in war-devastated countries and adopted a strong resolution urging support of the International Children's Emergency Fund of the United Nations and of the United Nations Appeal for Children. While rec-

ommending that the American Governments that have not yet done so "respond generously and immediately" to the appeal for the Children's Fund and that "individuals and private agencies cooperate in obtaining resources," the resolution expressed the hope that the Executive Board of the Children's Fund likewise "take into account the American children who are also suffering, although indirectly, the consequences of war."

It was singularly fitting that a Pan American Child Congress devoted to postwar reconstruction and peaceful progress should meet in Venezuela. As Dr. Fernández reviewed accomplishments from 1936, when the Consejo Venezolano del Niño (Venezuelan Children's Council) was first established, a year after the Gómez dictatorship had ended, to 1947 when the National Constitutional Assembly wrote into the new Constitution two articles guaranteeing the protection of childhood and setting up a special children's agency with its own organic law, the example was impressive.

The meeting place of the Congress, the beautiful new Andrés Bello Secondary School, was typical of progress made in extending educational facilities to all sections of the country and all elements of the population.

Members of the diplomatic corps; delegates from all but a few of the American Republics; official observers from the Pan American Union, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, the International Children's Emergency Fund of the United Nations, and the International Union for

the Protection of Childhood; and many distinguished guests representing important organizations and agencies concerned with the health, welfare, and education of children and youth filled the great auditorium of the School at the inaugural session. The Congress was formally opened by the President of the Government Junta.<sup>1</sup> Surrounding him on the platform were the members of the Junta, the members of the Cabinet, the President of the Permanent Commission of the National Constitutional Assembly, and the officers of the Congress, headed by Dr. Gustavo Machado, President of the Venezuelan Children's Council and Chairman of the Venezuelan Organizing Committee for the Congress. Election of officers had taken place at a preliminary session the previous day.

Following the formal opening of the Congress by President Betancourt and Dr. Fernández' welcoming address, Dr.

<sup>1</sup> This was after the election and a few weeks before the inauguration of President Gallegos.

Machado reported that the Organizing Committee had held 117 meetings in preparation for the Congress, and that the delegates would find many innovations in the organization of the sessions. He then referred briefly to the creation of the Venezuelan Children's Council in 1936, following recommendations of previous congresses for the creation in each country of a national agency. He alluded to the progress in the work of the Council previously described by the Minister, who had reported that since 1945 the annual budget of the agency had been increased twelvefold—from 500,000 bolívars to more than 6,000,000 bolívars. In order to avoid duplication, the Council now devotes itself especially to the solution of problems which are not dealt with by the Division of Maternal and Child Health of the Ministry of Health and Welfare or by the Ministry of Education.

In the absence of the beloved President of the Directing Council of the American International Institute for the Protection



Courtesy of Elisabeth Shirley Enochs

DELEGATES TO THE NINTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS



of Childhood, Dr. Gregorio Aráoz Alfaro of Argentina, the writer, who last year had been elected Vice-Chairman of the Council, was invited to extend greetings on behalf of this Institute. After reviewing the origin and history of the Institute, which owes its inspiration to the noted Uruguayan pediatrician Luis Morquio, and its creation and organization to action of the Second, Third, and Fourth Pan American Child Congresses, reference was made to the increasingly important role of the Institute in the development of services to childhood on the American continent; the assistance it gives in connection with the organization of the Child Congresses and execution of their resolutions; its relationship to other inter-American organizations, and the cooperation it has given to international efforts in behalf of childhood. Support for the Institute and its work by all of the American countries was urged to the end that we may bring up a generation of young people "prepared for the great task of making of the second half of the 20th century a period of peace and security founded on social justice and personal freedom."

Greetings from the Pan American Union were extended by Mrs. Elisabeth Shirley Enochs, who had been designated the official observer of the Union, and Dr. Fred L. Soper, Director of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, spoke in the name of that organization.

The response on behalf of all the delegations to the addresses of welcome was delivered by Dr. Roberto Berro of Uruguay, Director of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood. The concern for child welfare which is responsible for these periodic gatherings of doctors, lawyers, teachers, and sociologists is characterized, he said, by its definite objective and unswerving purpose in overcoming obstacles—"like

that of the planes which brought us to Caracas, some from the North, some from the South, flying smoothly on fine days, bumping about during hours of storm, but always arriving at their destination whether they fly above or beneath the clouds."

The ensuing days were days of intense technical activity, in the course of which the delegates appreciated the "innovations" alluded to by Dr. Machado in his first address.

The Congress was divided into four sections as follows:

Section I, Pediatrics and Maternal and Child Health

*Chairman:* Dr. Julio A. Bauzá (Uruguay)

Section II, Social Welfare and Legislation

*Chairman:* Katharine F. Lenroot (United States)

Section III, Education

*Chairman:* Dr. Luis Felipe González (Costa Rica)

Section IV, Inter-American Cooperation

Each country invited to participate in the Congress had been informed by the Venezuelan Organizing Committee that it would be responsible for preparing a paper on one of the official topics in one of these four sections. To Argentina, for instance, had been assigned the topic of *Organization and Financing of Maternal and Child Health Services*; to Brazil and Bolivia, *Prevention of Tuberculosis in Childhood*; to a group of Central American countries, *Symptoms of Deficiency Disease*; all to be studied and discussed in Section I. To the United States had been assigned *The Organization of Social Services for Mothers and Children*; to Chile and Peru, *The Child under Social Security*; to Uruguay, *The Care of the Dependent Child*; to Venezuela, *The Children's Code*, all included in Section II. Cuba, Ecuador, Colombia, Mexico, Costa Rica and Panama shared responsibility for the five topics on the agenda of the section of Education. All countries had

the privilege of preparing *co-relatos*, or joint reports, on the major topics. Many of these *co-relatos* were important documents that contributed greatly to the discussions.

Each section carried on its work through a technical commission. Dr. Pastor Oropeza of Venezuela presided over the Commission on Pediatrics and Maternal and Child Health; Dr. Felipe Urbaneja of Venezuela over the Commission on Social Welfare and Legislation, and Dr. J. M. Gutiérrez of Cuba was Chairman of the Technical Commission on Education. The Technical Commission on Inter-American Cooperation was organized in accordance with Article 20 of the Regulations of the Congress, under the chairmanship of Dr. Gustavo Machado, President of the Congress, and with the Section Chairmen and representatives of the Pan American Union (Mrs. Elisabeth Shirley Enochs) and of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood (Dr. Victor Escardó y Anaya) as members. Dr. E. Santos Mendoza, Secretary General of the Congress, served as Secretary of this Commission.

The 41 official delegates of the 12 countries (not counting Venezuela, the host country, which had a delegation of 96) that were represented at the Congress were assigned to the technical commissions. Each delegation presented its official paper on the topic assigned to it, and such other papers on other topics as it had prepared. Peru had, at the last minute, been prevented from sending a delegate, but sent an official paper that was fully discussed and helped to form the basis for the Congress resolution on social security. As each commission adopted conclusions, these were reported to plenary sessions for approval. Three plenary sessions, not counting the formal opening and closing sessions, were held. The Commission reports, after plenary

approval, were incorporated in the Final Act of the Congress, which is to be published by the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood.

Commission I reported out three recommendations, as follows:

The first, dealing with organization and financing of maternal and child health services, recognized the need for extension of such services in all American countries. It recommended that these services be integrated with local public health services, sanitary units, health centers or rural health stations; that agencies which include health services in their programs (mental hygiene, dental health, nurseries, kindergarten, etc.) work in close relationship and as a part of the maternal and child health service; that the work of the generalized public health nurse be recognized as the best for study and solution of matters affecting the health of mothers and children; that activity in the maternal and child health field be adapted to available technical and economic resources, preference being given to fundamental work in the field of child care; that maternal and child health services be financed through participation of federal, state, and local and private contributions, in accordance with the characteristics of each country, but with technical direction centralized under a single command; and that services for care of sick children be closely related to the Maternal and Child Health Service, preferably integrated with the local public health service.

The second resolution, dealing with deficiency disease, recommended greater protection of family life through extension of social insurance and family subsidies; creation of nutrition institutes for study of food values and popular education; mass feeding; training of personnel for nutrition work; measures for increasing food production, reducing the cost of living, avoiding speculation and hoarding, adulteration of food products and excessive advertising of dietary and food products. The resolution specifically recommended that the important topic of child nutrition and diseases due to malnutrition be put on the program of the next Congress.

The third resolution of Commission I dealt with tuberculosis. It urged, with other steps, early discovery and isolation of cases; adoption of a resolution of the XII Pan American Sanitary Conference concerning systematic and periodical mass examination, by the Abrue method; intensification of preventive measures, including the

raising of living standards; and B. C. G. vaccination in addition to but not as a substitute for recognized preventive measures.

Because of the great interest in the major topic assigned to the delegation of Venezuela, namely The Children's Code (at the opening plenary session Dr. Machado had explained that the new Venezuelan Constitution made it necessary to adopt a new Children's Code, and that for this reason the Venezuelan Organizing Committee had assigned this topic to its own delegation, and hoped that the other delegations would review the draft and make suggestions), the Technical Commission on Social Welfare and Legislation divided into two sub-commissions, one to deal with this topic and the other with those pertaining to the care of dependent children, organization of social services, and the child under social security. The code committee worked hard and long, even holding evening sessions that lasted until midnight, and was the center of interest of all delegations. As revised by the Technical Commission and approved by the Congress, the Code contains twenty separate headings and a brief preamble referring to the desirability of codifying laws relating to the protection of minors and recommending this proposed code to the American countries, subject to adaptation to the constitutional requirements and the social and cultural conditions of each country. A special vote of applause for the Venezuelan Delegation for its official report on the Children's Code was proposed in the name of all the other delegations and unanimously approved by the Congress. The full text of the Code was included in the Final Act.

The eight-point recommendation submitted by the United States Delegation as part of its paper on Organization of

Social Services for Mothers and Children was adopted by the Commission and approved by the Congress. It provides for:

(1) Recognition of the responsibility of government for child welfare by vesting in an appropriate agency the functions and authority required to initiate and develop social services for families and children; (2) participation by the National Government in the financing of such services; (3) efforts to improve general social conditions contributing to the strengthening and conserving of family life (adequate wage levels, housing, good standards of health and education, social insurances and social services); (4) emphasis on case work, or social service to individual cases; development of resources for helping children in their own homes; acceptance of the principle that the primary goals of institutional or foster care for children are those of substituting, for a brief time or longer, for the child's own home; (5) special training in social work to the greatest extent possible, for persons on the staff of organizations providing social services to families and children; (6) emphasis on coordination among social agencies and on cooperative community planning; (7) responsibility of agencies administering social services for children and families to interpret their work in such a way that the public will understand and support it; (8) cooperation of national agencies responsible for development of social services for families and children with international efforts in behalf of the children of the world.

Inasmuch as the official reports submitted by Chile and Peru on *The Child under Social Security* contained no specific recommendations, a subcommittee of Technical Commission III was designated to prepare a resolution on this subject. The resolution recommends:

(1) That the suggestions and resolutions on social security adopted by the Eighth Pan American Child Congress in Washington and the First Inter-American Congress of Social Security in Santiago, Chile, be reaffirmed; (2) that social security plans recognize the importance of child care and protection and coordinate their provisions in this respect with the resources and plans of agencies in the fields of health, social assistance, labor, and education; and (3) that there be an active interchange of experience and

information on plans, programs, methods, and results among the American countries in matters pertaining to social security, child care, and protection.

The resolution on the welfare of abandoned or dependent children declares that the modern State should devote the most adequate possible resources to combating the causes of abandonment or dependency. It recognizes the part which social security plays in this connection and strongly recommends that assistance be given dependent children in their own homes if possible, in suitable foster homes, or in institutions which can serve as substitutes. Institutions for dependent children should preferably be of the family or semi-family type. Punitive systems should be abolished in such agencies and each child admitted should be studied individually from the medical, psychological, educational, and social points of view. Governments should likewise stimulate the development of social services, with trained personnel, as the most effective auxiliary means of diminishing the evils of child abandonment. Uruguay's delegation received a special vote of applause for this contribution.

Other resolutions recognized the value of psychiatric services for children and the importance of appropriate psychiatric training for doctors, nurses, social workers, and teachers rendering professional services to children in their respective fields.

Technical Commission III, which was extremely active, reported comprehensive resolutions dealing with *Education in Rural Areas*, based on official reports from Colombia and Ecuador; on *The Education of the Preschool Child*, based on the official report of Cuba; on *Progressive Education*, and on *The Care and Recreation of Children outside of School Hours*. The Colombian-Ecuadorean contribution was also the subject of a special vote of applause, and

the resolution based on the Cuban report contained an important declaration in favor of the preschool child who was described as "still neglected, pedagogically and socially, in many American countries."

Another important declaration of the Congress was the Declaration of Caracas on Child Health. This was the result of a suggestion submitted by Dr. John D. Long, of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, to a meeting of the Governing Council of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, held in Montevideo in April 1947. It had been agreed that Dr. Long and the Institute would prepare preliminary drafts for submission to the next Child Congress. The revised version approved by the Congress will be submitted to the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and the Institute for final review and approval before being distributed to all the American countries.

To a greater degree than ever before the Ninth Pan American Child Congress entrusted new responsibilities to the Institute. A Cuban resolution recommended that the Institute, in order to give greater stimulus and publicity to developments in the field of social service, develop a plan for a nation-wide competition in each country on the subject of the successful achievements of the country in this field. The winning paper of each country would be published by the Institute.

A United States resolution expressed the hope that the Institute might obtain sufficient resources to permit it to make a comparative study of the legal bases of child care, especially between countries under systems of civil law and common law, and that the Institute plan the study and be in charge of it, with the assistance of an advisory committee of experts.

A Costa Rican resolution urged the Institute to consider the problem of children who cross national frontiers, on

their own initiative or at the instigation of others, for motives contrary to their interests and who should be returned to their homes.

The Institute was commended for the cooperation it had given during the past year in connection with the organization of seminars on social work in Medellín, Colombia, and Montevideo, Uruguay, under the auspices of the United Nations. It was likewise praised for the progress it had made in carrying out resolutions of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress dealing with inter-American cooperation, and was directed to consult with the Pan American Union and with inter-American agencies operating in related fields as to the best way of carrying out resolutions and recommendations of the Ninth International Conference of American States relative to inter-American cooperation in matters pertaining to health, education, social services, and social insurance, as they affect children. Recognizing the importance of the problem of nutrition, and the efforts which international organizations are making to deal with it, both through the United Nations and various inter-American agencies, the Institute was asked to study ways in which the experience of the International Children's Emergency Fund, the Food and Agriculture Organization and the Pan American Sanitary Bureau can serve to promote efforts to raise the level of child nutrition in the American countries.

All of these resolutions of an inter-American and international character, including the Declaration of Caracas on Child Health, were reported to the Congress by Commission IV on Inter-American Cooperation.

In view of the fact that more adequate statistics will be needed to enable the American countries and agencies to carry

out many of the resolutions of the Congress, a special resolution recommended that the agencies in each country responsible for taking the 1950 census arrange to obtain statistical data which will contribute to a knowledge of the real situation of the child in America. A copy of this resolution was to be sent to the Inter-American Statistical Institute for submission to the Organizing Committee for the 1950 Census which was to meet later in the year in Bogotá.

Looking ahead to the X Congress, a Brazilian resolution urged that participating countries report not only on their achievements and the extent to which they may have given effect to the recommendations of the Ninth Congress, but on the most urgent needs and deficiencies with which they are faced in their work for children.

The hope was expressed that the Tenth Congress might meet in Bogotá. The final designation is made by the Pan American Union and the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood.

The closing session was devoted to the signing of the Final Act and to a final address by the Minister of Education, Dr. Luis Beltrán Prieto, which left with the visitors from other lands a new sense of the efforts which Venezuela is making to bring education within reach of all her people.

Just before adjournment, the President of the Congress announced publication of a series of Blue Books (*Cuadernos Azules*). Number one of the series, which was distributed to all of the delegates, was a compilation of the final acts of the entire series of the Pan American Child Congresses, from the Second Congress through the Eighth. It is the first time that these documents have been thus compiled.

Specially arranged tours made it possible

to learn at first hand of the progress of Venezuela in the development of health, welfare, and educational services and facilities. And for those delegates whose work in the Technical Commissions left little opportunity for visits to agencies and institutions, the wonderful exhibits in the halls of the Andrés Bello School supplied a dramatic as well as an artistic record of Venezuelan achievement in the past decade.

As delegates departed for their homelands, their thoughts found perfect expression in an editorial published in *El Universal* of Caracas, which said: "The Congress has been a gathering of great scientific significance. The reports presented . . . and the discussions aroused by them bear testimony to the maturity with which American thought considers the life, development, and future of children."

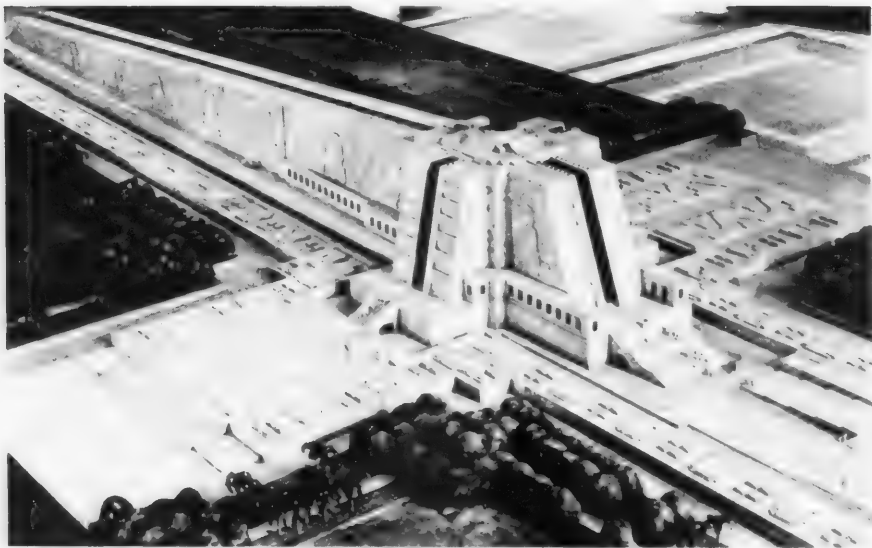
## Columbus Memorial Lighthouse

A GREAT cooperative project that has been under discussion for many years was finally begun on Pan American Day, 1948. No more appropriate date could have been chosen to break ground for the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse at Ciudad Trujillo, and on April 14 fitting ceremonies in the Dominican capital marked the beginning of work that will transform the prize-winning architect's drawing into a huge steel-and-concrete reality. The scene was gay with more than three hundred flags of the Dominican Republic and its sister nations of America.

The idea of a memorial to Columbus in the shape of a lighthouse was first suggested almost a century ago by Antonio del Monte y Tejada, in his history of Santo Domingo. Many plans for such a monument were discussed over the years, but it was not until 1923, when the Fifth International Conference of American States met at Santiago, Chile, that definite steps were taken for joint action by all the countries of the Pan American Union. A resolution was passed recommending construction of a lighthouse on the coast of the Dominican Republic—

on the island which gave Columbus his first sight of the New World, and which he named Hispaniola. At a meeting of the Governing Board of the Union on March 2, 1927, it was agreed to begin preparations to carry out the resolution, and a permanent committee was appointed.

Because of the magnitude of the project, the committee decided to hold a worldwide competition, in order that the best architectural talent might be secured. The competition was to be in two parts—a preliminary contest from which the ten best plans would be selected, and a second to which the ten finalists would submit new and complete designs, which would incorporate the features and ideas brought out in the course of the preliminaries. The first competition was held at Madrid in April 1929, and the three judges (representatives of North America, Latin America, and Europe) chose ten from the 455 drawings entered. The entries were exhibited to the public in Madrid and later in Rome, and attracted wide attention. The second competition was held two years later, in



Courtesy of the Dominican Embassy in Washington

#### HOW THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE WILL LOOK

On April 14, 1948, ground was broken for the erection of a great memorial to the Discoverer of America in which all the Republics of the continent will share. It will rise close to Ciudad Trujillo in the Dominican Republic, on the island of Hispaniola, so much beloved by Columbus that he chose it for his burial place.

October 1931 at Rio de Janeiro; and the first prize of \$10,000 was awarded on that occasion to Joseph L. Gleave, of Edinburgh, for the great white structure that will shortly rise beside the Ciudad Trujillo harbor.

The project was approved by the XII Assembly of the League of Nations, and at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, meeting at Buenos Aires in 1936, a resolution was adopted urging all nations to make prompt contributions toward erection of the monument. In 1946, the General Assembly of the United Nations, at its London session, unanimously approved the project.

The immense modernistic structure will be built in the form of a recumbent cross three-fourths of a mile long, its head pointing to the west to symbolize the

course taken by the Admiral. For a lighthouse, it is comparatively low, rising 120 feet, and this height and its massive construction will make it both earthquake- and hurricane-proof. Its powerful beacon will throw perpendicular rather than the usual horizontal rays. Inside, there will be a library and a museum of inter-American exhibits. The ashes of Columbus, now in the ancient Cathedral of Santo Domingo, will occupy a place of honor.

On the morning of April 14, the President of the Dominican Republic, Dr. Rafael L. Trujillo, made an address from the Presidential Palace which was broadcast to a nation-wide audience and heard over loud-speakers by the crowds assembled at the site of the lighthouse. President Trujillo commented that "the sig-



nificance that will be attached in time to come to the Christopher Columbus Lighthouse goes beyond the material reality of the structure that we are beginning today to erect. It is our aim that this work, besides uniting in one monument the common will of the nations to come together in joint defense of the inestimable spiritual legacy represented by American history and tradition, will serve to hold safe, as in a priceless reliquary, the sum of the achievements of our Latin American culture over the years." He said further, "The Columbus Lighthouse, raised on this land of the Discoverer's choice, will be not only a tomb for his ashes but a monument to his unfading glory, destined to perpetuate the evocation of his immortal feat in the minds and spirits of the future generations."

At the ceremonies on the shore of the Ozama River, the symbolic charge which marked the start of construction was set off by dynamite detonated by a specially constructed apparatus employing nuclear

energy. Archbishop Ricardo Pittini, Primate of the West Indies, invoked a blessing on the future work, Dr. Jesús María Troncoso, the venerable chairman of the Permanent Lighthouse Committee, said a few heartfelt words, and an address was made by Dr. Julio Ortega Frier, representing the Pan American Union. Dr. Ortega Frier said in part, "The Pan American Union could not be unrepresented at this ceremony, for the monument whose materialization is now beginning is, primarily, a symbol of the brotherhood of nations for which the genius and integrity of the Discoverer of the New World labored in Christian civilization. This brotherhood, based essentially on spiritual bonds, in which the ties resulting from common origin, geographical proximity, or purely material interests take only second place, needed a symbol, a standard, that would represent above all the transcendental character of the bases that make it imperishable."



# American Figures, Past and Present

## I. Dr. Bernardo Samper

GENEVIEVE HOEHN BELLIS

THE death of Dr. Bernardo Samper in Bogotá on March 22, 1948, calls to mind his work as the founder and scientific director of the Samper-Martínez National Health Institute in that city.

Dr. Samper had been engaged in public health work in Colombia since the completion of his medical studies. On January 24, 1917, he and his colleague, Dr. Jorge Martínez Santamaría, founded on Calle 57 in Bogotá the Samper and Martínez Public Health Laboratory. The principal studies in the Laboratory were in the field of bacteriology, and the young scientists were particularly interested in rabies. The death of Dr. Martínez in 1922 from diphtheria acquired during an investigation of that disease strengthened the zeal with which Dr. Samper applied himself to his work. In 1926 the Laboratory was acquired by the Government of Colombia and the name was changed to the one it bears at present. During most of the subsequent years Dr. Samper was director of the Institute, which had a degree of autonomy even though it now was a Government laboratory.

The scientific undertakings of the Institute have covered many fields, including rabies, malaria, diphtheria, and leprosy. It is impossible to measure the relief from suffering or tabulate the number of lives that have been saved because of the work of the Institute. This has embraced not only research, but hundreds of thousands of analyses and the preparation of large quantities of vaccines, antitoxins, and medicines.

The contributions of Dr. Samper may be better understood if we consider, as an example, his investigations and accomplishments in the field of rabies.

The Samper-Martínez National Health Institute has been called "The Pasteur Institute of Colombia." Dr. Samper, as a medical student, learned to admire Louis Pasteur. Rabies was practically unknown in Colombia in the early days, but it was increasing at the time Dr. Samper was studying medicine. He observed that in 1906, when a child and a



Courtesy of Genevieve Hoehn Bellis

DR. BERNARDO SAMPER

Remembered not only for devotion to his work but for the greatness of his spirit.



Courtesy of Genevieve Hoehn Bellis

#### GROUNDS OF THE SAMPER-MARTÍNEZ NATIONAL HEALTH INSTITUTE, BOGOTÁ

"It is impossible to measure the relief from suffering or tabulate the number of lives that have been saved because of the work of the Institute."

servant in Bogotá were bitten by a cat that was suspected of being rabid, it was necessary to take them to New York for the Pasteur treatment. Such a trip was possible for the rich, but rabies was no respecter of persons. And since a trip from Bogotá to New York could then be expected to take more than a month, the journey might prove to be a futile effort to save the victims from the terrible suffering and sure death that rabies causes once the first indications of the disease have appeared. Dr. Samper resolved to put into effect in Colombia the benefit of Pasteur's work.

In March 1917 Drs. Samper and Martínez reported in Bogotá the first proved case of rabies. These scientists had begun the manufacture of anti-rabic vaccine in 1916, making use of material that they had obtained through the Public Health Laboratory of New York. Since that

day many thousands of Colombians have been saved from death by rabies through prompt treatment. This is available, free, to all who require it, and by the cooperation of the Colombian Army the vaccine is flown to regions not otherwise accessible.

Those who knew Dr. Bernardo Samper at the Institute will remember him not only for his devotion to his work, but for the greatness of his spirit. Dr. Samper was innately kind, equally gracious to those of all stations in life. A cultured man from a distinguished Colombian family, educated in Bogotá and abroad, he was an unassuming, friendly person. His fellow scientists realized the importance of the work he was doing. The workmen employed at the Institute were not able to judge the scientific merit of the work, but they loved Dr. Samper for his gentleness and his goodness. One of these workers liked to relate that he had come

to work at the Laboratory as a boy, carrying bricks that went into the construction of the first building. Others pointed out the room above the stables and told of the first time it was put to use. In 1923 there was a near epidemic of rabies in the Sogamoso region, more than 100 miles from Bogotá. Within a few days, rabid dogs bit twenty or more people. Dr. Samper recognized the necessity for prompt treatment of these people and for observation of the cases until all were out of danger. He caused the persons bitten to be brought to Bogotá for treatment and housed them in an improvised dormitory set up in the large room above the stables. Cots and bedding were brought in from outside and food was prepared in the laboratory itself. This was some three years before the Laboratory became a Government insti-

tution. This incident was not widely publicized, but there is enshrined in the memories of the persons whose lives were spared the recollection of a scientist who spent his own funds to save them. He was able to heal them because he had devoted some years of his life to applying in Colombia the results of Pasteur's research.

Dr. Samper often expressed the hope that rabies might some day be eliminated in Colombia and the conviction that all Colombians must be taught the danger of rabies and the urgency of reporting for prompt treatment. Perhaps in the years to come Dr. Samper's goal will be realized. The men who accomplish that would prove themselves worthy successors of this kindly scientist who spent a lifetime quietly working to alleviate the suffering of his fellow men.

## II. Justo Sierra, "Maestro de América"

BETTY WILSON

*Editorial Division, Pan American Union*

Mexico is being joined by other American countries this year in observance of the centenary of its greatest educator, Justo Sierra. Ceremonies as early as October 1947 paid tribute to the man who is considered the founder of the nation's school system, and who at the same time was a poet, essayist, and great historian. On the anniversary of his birth, January 26, ceremonies in his honor were held in towns and cities all over the country and, appropriately, were marked by the dedication of many new public schools.

Justo Sierra was born in Campeche in 1848, the son of a well-known man of letters, and was graduated as an attorney from the Colegio Nacional de San Ildefonso in 1871. For many years he was a professor of history at the Escuela Prepa-

ratoria, a famous school in Mexico City. He served in the Mexican Congress as a deputy, and in 1905 became Minister of Education, a post in which he rendered perhaps his greatest service to his country. In 1911 he was appointed Minister to Spain. He died in Madrid on September 13, 1912.

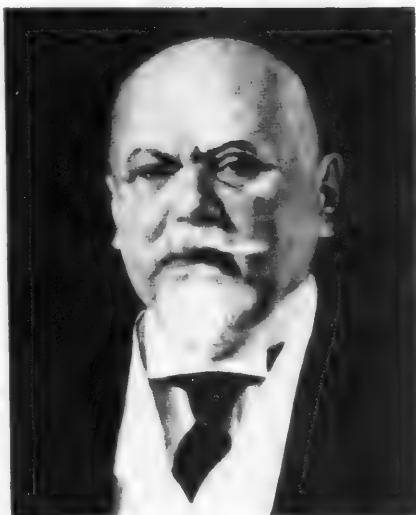
The law establishing compulsory, free, secular education is attributed to the efforts of Justo Sierra, and as Minister of Education he put it into operation. He founded the normal-school system of Mexico, and influenced pedagogic thinking along the road it now takes. In 1908, he achieved the reestablishment of the National University, which had been closed since 1865, as a modern institution of higher learning. As a historian, Justo Sierra is known pri-

marily as collaborator in and editor of the three-volume *México: Su Evolución Social* (his superb contribution to this work was republished in 1940 under the title *Evolución Política del Pueblo Mexicano*); as author of a comprehensive study of Juárez and his era; and as the author of a general world history.

Alfonso Reyes, the Mexican scholar and writer, said of Sierra, in an article published on the occasion of the centenary in the *Revista de América* of Bogotá:

"All Mexicans love and honor the memory of Justo Sierra. His place is with the creators of the Spanish-American tradition—Bello, Sarmiento, Montalvo, Hostos, Martí, Rodó. With them, writing and thinking were a kind of social good, and beauty a means of education for the people. . . . Justo Sierra's last portrait, sent to the newspapers from Europe, presents him to us as he was—a white-haired giant. A huge man, with features carved from marble, his great goodness made Jesús Urueta think of those elephants to whom parents in India entrust the care of their children. With youth, he was a natural teacher; of old men he was the youngest. . . . He was all virtue, without affectation of austerity; authority without condescension; love for his fellow man; understanding and forgiveness; sureness and confidence in the right that approached heroic proportions. A rather waggish style and a talent for nonmalicious epigrams masked his tenderness and made it less vulnerable. . . . Evocation and interpretation, the poetry of history and the meaning of history—nothing is lacking in Justo Sierra."

The title "Maestro de América," by which he is known, and which had earlier been awarded by the National University, was formally bestowed this year on Justo



Courtesy of Hemiaferio

JUSTO SIERRA, 1848-1912

Sierra by government decree, and his remains were moved to the Nation's Rotunda of Illustrious Men. Mexico's Secretary of Public Education, Manuel Gual Vidal, and the Rector of the University, Dr. Salvador Zubirán, participated on January 26 in the ceremonies at Campeche, which included the dedication of a school bearing the name "Justo Sierra," presentation of a bust by the National University, placing of a tablet marking his birthplace, and unveiling of a monument in the main square of the city. Prizes for a literary contest in commemoration of the centenary were awarded at that time. More or less elaborate ceremonies took place in the capital and at every school in the country. The University of Habana also declared Justo Sierra to be the "Maestro de América" and called on all the universities of the hemisphere to join in this tribute to the Mexican educator.

## Lacquer Renaissance in Mexico

ONE of Mexico's oldest crafts—lacquer work, ancient when Bishop Vasco de Quiroga encouraged it in the sixteenth century—is receiving a fresh impetus in the twentieth. The shoddy painted ornaments turned out for the tourist trade will go, with the reorganization of the industry planned by the government; and under the guidance of Señor Enrique Gutmann, the great days when its lacquer ware was the glory of Uruapan will come again. So readers are told by Ulises Monferrer, writing in the Mexican magazine *Hoy*.

When Señor Gutmann came to Uruapan about five years ago, a journalist on vacation, the once-proud art was for many merely a poorly paid labor performed to head off starvation. The tradition which had made Michoacán lacquers distinctive was fast disappearing. Design was often a naïve combination of patterns borrowed from all over the globe, and the colors—gaudy commercial paints—were strident. Many pieces were rushed to completion for a quick sale, and the protesting lacquers cracked later or ran. The prevailing wage for the tedious work was about a dollar a day. Even magnificent examples, recalling the past, sold to shopkeepers or in the market place for a few pesos. Gutmann's interest was aroused, and his investigations led him into a new career.

No one knows how many generations of Tarascan Indians have passed on the art of patient hand-rubbing of gourds and trays, until colors glowed on a polished surface. There is a theory that the Chinese, the world's original lacquer craftsmen, might have brought it across the Pacific when they sailed (if we may believe the ancient document that tells us

so) to the western shores of Mexico about 600 A. D. Authorities who hold this view point out that the Mexican lacquer centers are in the coastal states of Michoacán and Guerrero, where the Chinese would have landed; that Mexican and Chinese artisans use the same technical process; and that the stylized flower patterns typical of Uruapan designs are similar to those on the lacquers of China. Certainly, however, the lacquer art in pre-Columbian culture stretches back over centuries.

The finest modern craftsmen still follow the laborious methods used by their ancestors to achieve masterpieces that amazed the Spanish. Gourds were hollowed out, leaving only the tough rind. Gourds and wooden objects were smoothed with sandstone, and the background—frequently black—lacquered on. The designs were cut into the finish with sharp instruments. The colors, blended from local earths according to jealously guarded formulas, were applied separately with the fingertips and rubbed into the wood. Each color was allowed to dry thoroughly for several days. The lacquer was made of a substance collected from certain small insects. Finally, the palms of practiced hands would buff the finish to a shine. A simple piece could not be completed in less than three weeks, and an ornate one might take months.

The Conquest brought no change in this age-old process, but with the Spaniards new influences crept in. They widened the range of color available to lacquer artisans, and introduced unfamiliar objects on which their skill might be lavished. Spanish trade with the Orient



A 17TH-CENTURY LACQUER BOWL

A piece from the collection of the late Dwight W. Morrow.

resulted in Chinese motifs that, this time, can be traced to their source. Bishop de Quiroga's patronage of the art, as a means for the poverty-stricken Indians to better their economic condition, introduced the first European elements into the design.

Señor Gutmann's research led him to believe that the history of lacquer work would provide the basis for a great modern industry. In all Mexico, there were not more than four hundred families representing the lacquer tradition, but among them were some truly fine artists. He learned that before the war sales of Japanese lacquers to the United States had

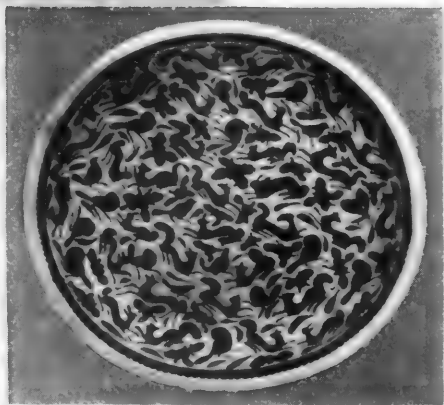
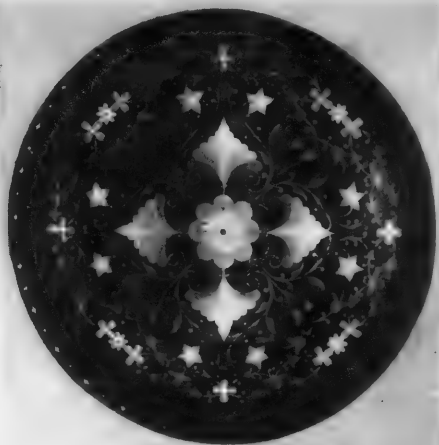
totalled \$24,000,000 annually, and was convinced that a market existed for good Mexican lacquers. The craftsmen needed guidance; even more, they needed a sound economic footing, to raise their work from a level of drudgery to that of art. With a small capital, he organized an enterprise to put his ideas into practice.

His initial accomplishment was to convince workers that it was necessary to bring modern production methods and designs to the aid of an ancient skill. In a small cabin in the lacquer colony he installed a group of artisans, with the assurance of a steady wage higher than



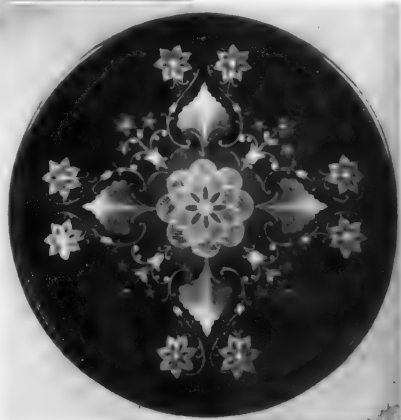
### TWENTIETH-CENTURY TREASURES FROM URUAPAN

This trio of lacquered wood trays exhibits two major influences in Uruapan ware. The black trays are typical of traditional design, with their stylized flower patterns and graceful arabesques. The larger one (top), of violet and purple with green leaves and gold tracing, is signed by the artist, Alicia Velázquez R. The design of the smaller tray is of varying shades of red, set off with lemon yellow and silver. The merry birds and beasts in the modern all-over pattern of the center tray are black against a terra-cotta background.



Upper and lower trays lent by  
Barbara Moulton; center tray  
by H. C. Snodgrass.

what they earned working individually in their own huts. The first step taken was to improve the quality of the product. Under the crude system of most of the artisans, imperfections were inevitable at some stage of the long process. They bought the trays and dishes, roughly fashioned of wood, from the Indians of the surrounding mountains; and frequently, from that point on, the finished objects were the work of one man—in sandpapering, mixing his own colors, outlining and filling in the designs, and

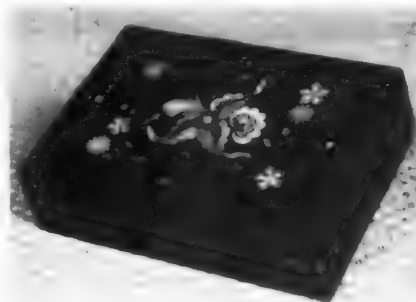
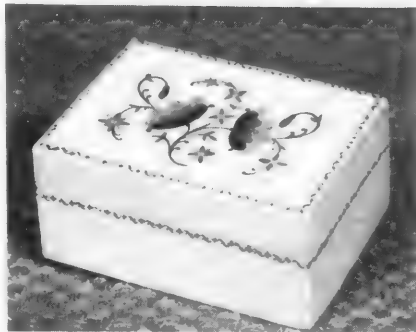


polishing the surface. Gutmann instituted specialization. In his shop the most imaginative workers were responsible for design; the man with steady hands did nothing but outline; women with strong hands applied and polished the lacquer. The result was a technically perfect article, but perhaps even more gratifying to Gutmann was the workers' growing approval of the specialization method. As the success of the experiment became assured, the shop hired its own woodworkers.

Gutmann believes that artists of every age, while basing their work on the traditional, must express themselves in contemporary terms. In Uruapan he wanted to create a simple style truly Mexican and representative of the Michoacán cultural heritage, yet modern—free on the one hand of inharmonious foreign influences, and on the other, of slavish repetitions of fifteenth-century symbols. Lacquer ware from his workshop was to capture in spirit the daily life of the artisans against their historic background. Impressions of the maguay and the palm tree replaced traces of Napoleonic France and the Australian bush.

Another theory of Gutmann's was that lacquered objects should be useful. He encouraged production of cigarette boxes, lamp bases, and book ends. The skepticism of the Indians, an obstacle which Señor Gutmann has since termed the principal difficulty he had to face, was dispelled as former President Cárdenas expressed his approval, and orders showered in. From its humble shack, the studio was moved to a large house with a garden.

The man who has been entrusted with promotion of the lacquer industry is a German by birth. Before 1933, he was well known in Berlin as a crusading



Lent by Alsora H. Eldridge

#### TWO STYLES IN LACQUER DESIGN

The small ivory-colored box (top) is unmistakably feminine, with a feeling of elegance in its subdued blue tones accented by yellow and gold. The larger box has two compartments. It is of brilliant lipstick red. The cheerful flower design uses a rainbow of colors in casual harmony—lime green, yellow, pink, blue, orchid, orange, and gold.

journalist and outspoken champion of democracy. The accession of the Nazi Party forced him to flee to Prague. After a year of roving and continuing his political activities in the free countries of Europe, he settled in Mexico, his wife's country, in 1934. Convinced of the tremendous unexploited material and spiritual riches of the land, he became a photographer, accredited to *Life*. Exhibitions of his work attracted wide notice. With the outbreak of World War II, he devoted himself almost completely for several years, in his writings and through

organizations and attempts to rescue anti-Fascists, to the defeat of the Axis powers. He was certain, with the victories at Stalingrad and in Africa, that the turning point of the war had been reached; and after urging early attention to the problems of the peace, set off for a vacation at Uruapan. His observations there led to the experiment that serves him as head of the government-sponsored reorganization.

Present plans call for a wide application of the latest industrial methods to the making of lacquer ware. A factory is to be built, in which much of the basic work can be performed mechanically. Modern lathes and woodworking shops will permit mass production of bowls, trays, boxes, and ornaments, and a scientific drying plant will improve and speed finishing. There is to be a large new workshop for

the artisans. A major improvement is to be the development of lacquers similar to those now in use, but waterproof, to permit the manufacture of a wider variety of objects. A school will be opened to train apprentices, for only a few hundred craftsmen are now skilled in lacquer work. Economic benefits to the workers, which in 1943 seemed to Gutmann so long overdue, will become a large-scale reality. As the program gets under way, international markets will be sought. It is hoped that a great new era is at hand for Michoacán, seat of the lacquer tradition.

The government's interest in the prosperity of the industry, and Senor Gutmann's confidence in its future, should mean the eventual appearance of Uruapan lacquers in homes and shop windows all over the world.



Lent by Alsora H. Eldridge

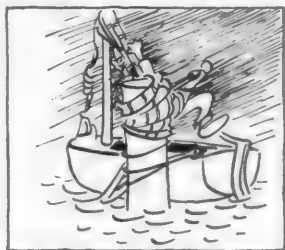
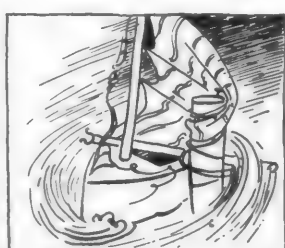
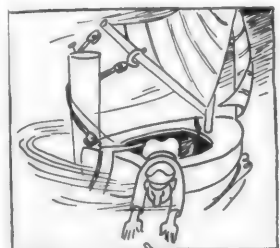
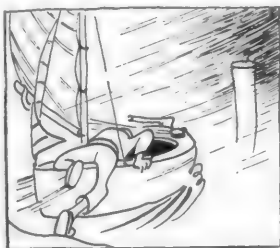
#### PATIENT WORK MADE IT PERFECT

Useful and beautiful, this lacquered box is a good example of conventional Uruapan design, reminiscent of such oddly disparate types as the Chinese and the Pennsylvania Dutch. It is of traditional black: its flowers are red and blue and the leaves yellow, with touches of gold, white, and purple.

Spanish page

## *Cualquiera sabe navegar a vela*

*Método seguro de amarre.*



*Reproducido de Neptunia, Buenos Aires.*

## In Our Hemisphere—XVII

### *The Lordly Llama<sup>1</sup> and Its Relatives*

#### The Llama

THE tourist who looks at a llama for the first time and exclaims, "Why, it's a small camel minus its hump!" is probably more right than he knows. There is a widely accepted theory among the scientists who study the bones of prehistoric animals that millions of years ago the original camels lived on the North American continent. As the theory goes, some of these primitive camels crossed over to Asia by way of Alaska and the Aleutian Islands and eventually became the "ships of the desert" to the peoples of the East. Others went southward through what are now Mexico and the Central American countries to South America, and emerged by the time man made his appearance on that continent as the guanaco and the vicuña. This theory is based on the fossil forms of camels that have been found in North America, plus the similarity in traits and habits as well as in the structure of fur fibers between the camels of the East and the lamoids of South America.

The term lamoids includes four species found in South America today: two wild—the guanaco and the vicuña; and two domesticated—the llama and the alpaca. It is generally believed by zoologists that the latter two were developed by the Incas from the guanaco. This is thought to have taken place some 1,200 years ago so that today there are pronounced differences among the three both in physical characteristics and in behaviour.

One of the most striking characteristics of the llama is the haughty way it carries

its head, giving it an air of lofty pride. This is to some extent justified when you consider that llamas were one of the cornerstones on which the great civilization of the Incas was built. As the only means of transportation they made possible the building of irrigation projects, highways, temples, and other public works. Their fleece, along with that of alpacas, vicuñas, and guanacos, furnished wool for fabrics that have lasted through the centuries. And they also played a vital role in the Incas' religious life, as thousands of ill-fated llamas were sacrificed each year as votive offerings to the Sun.

To this day the llama is the most important animal in the lives of the Indians who live high in the Andes. As in the days of the Incas, it is the principal beast of burden in the area, and in addition supplies meat, fleece for warm clothing, hide for sandals, hairs for rope, and droppings for fuel.

As the largest and strongest of the four lamoids, llamas make the best pack animals. Their partially cleft hoofs make them unusually sure-footed—a valuable asset in the highlands of Bolivia and Peru. Male llamas are trained as burden carriers when they are three and a half or four years old. (The females are sent to pasturage and used only for breeding purposes and for their fleece.) Pack llamas seem to have a private labor union of their own. If they are asked to carry much over 100 pounds, or to keep going when they feel they have gone far enough, they literally go on a sit-down strike and refuse to budge until the management is forced to give in. For the majority of their

<sup>1</sup> Pronounced *lyah-ma*.



Courtesy of the Peruvian Embassy

#### PACK LLAMAS IN THE PLAZA OF A PERUVIAN VILLAGE

For hundreds of years llamas have been used to carry on trade through the Andes.

Indian masters, however, who understand the terms on which their llamas will work for them, they are docile and faithful servants.

Llamas can travel for as much as 20 days at a stretch, averaging 15 to 20 miles a day, and the operating costs amount to practically nothing, as they feed on the *yehu* grass that grows along the way. Like camels they can carry a few spare cud in their complex stomachs to be chewed when no food is available. Very familiar in the Andine regions is the sight of llama trains carrying the products of the highlands—llama skins, crude wool, jerked meat, and products of the hand loom—to market towns at lower altitudes, or heading back home laden with provisions of corn, barley, potatoes, and coca leaves.

The llama's exalted position is every-

where evident in Peru, where it appears symbolically on the country's coat of arms, coins, and postage stamps, and where the llama motif is widely used on textiles, hand-decorated gourds, pottery, and silver and gold ornaments.

#### The Lofty Alpaca

The alpaca is shorter than the llama, but its body has more bulk. Today as in pre-Columbian times it is used chiefly as a wool-producer. Its fleece hangs down in long strands, sometimes to the ground, so that it looks like a walking ball of wool. Like the llama, the alpaca may be white, light or dark brown, gray, or black. It lives at higher altitudes than the llama; while the latter's range begins at 7,500 feet above sea level, the alpaca is seldom seen below 12,000 feet, and is most at



ALPACAS AT HOME IN THE ANDINE HIGHLANDS

home on the tablelands at 13,000 feet or higher. Its light warm fleece, which easily sheds rain and snow, is in great demand in the textile industry. Though it is inferior to that of the vicuña, it is far superior to most sheep's wool.

Business establishments have so far met with little success in raising alpacas on a large scale, and alpaca flocks are still owned mostly by Indians. The animals roam the tablelands by day, and return at night to stone corrals, some of which antedate the coming of the Spaniards. Once every two years the animals are sheared. In Peru (home of the great majority of alpacas) the fleece is brought to collecting points scattered through the highlands. Most of it is bought by large export companies and shipped to their

headquarters in Arequipa. There it is weighed and sorted by expert Indian women into seven basic shades. Then any excess dirt, vegetable matter, and inferior short pieces are removed, and it is baled and shipped to Mollendo for export.

During the war large quantities of alpaca wool were used in the manufacture of sleeping bags, parkas, flying suits, and rugged outdoor clothing for the Armed Forces of the United States. In peacetime it goes into fine cloth for dresses, linings, and umbrella coverings.

### The Elegant Vicuña

Most fantastic of all the llama's relatives is the vicuña, whose fleece furnishes one of the finest and softest textile fibers known



to man. This fiber was held in such high esteem by the Incas that only the rulers were allowed to use articles made from it. The chosen virgin handmaidens of the Sun wove the wool into cloth for the rulers' shawls, robes, carpets, and tapestries. The animal was carefully protected by law and could be hunted only during the four yearly solstice feasts, and even then each man could kill only a limited number.

The vicuña is smaller and daintier than any of the other lamoids. Its fur shades from golden chestnut to deep fawn color, and an apron of long white hair hangs down its chest and between its forelegs. Because of its unusual vision and agility, it is very hard to get near a vicuña, but even so the abandonment of all conservation laws after the Conquest almost resulted in its extinction. For some time now vicuñas have again been enjoying legal protection, and their numbers are once more on the increase.



THE VICUÑA

A vicuña is literally worth its weight in gold. Its fleece, which produces cloth unsurpassed in texture, luster, tensile strength, and beauty, holds the same place among wools as chinchilla holds among furs. On the New York market a coat made of cloth woven from vicuña wool costs from \$400 to \$1,100.

Though the Incas probably tried to domesticate the vicuña they never succeeded. Simón Bolívar, in his day, had the Peruvian Government offer a reward for each vicuña tamed, but to no avail. In recent years a few ranchers have succeeded in building up domesticated flocks, but for the most part vicuñas remain as wild and free as their ancestors that clothed the Incan emperors.

### The Swift Guanaco

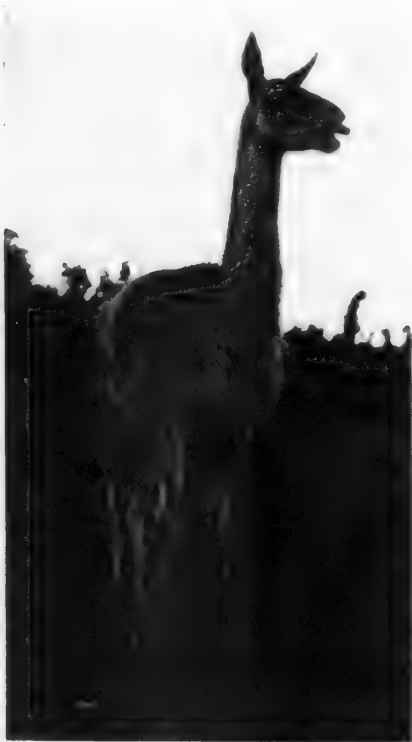
Finally, there is the guanaco (or huanaco as it is sometimes called), an animal that has a much wider range than the others, since it is found from eastern Bolivia and Peru southward across the plains of Patagonia to Tierra del Fuego. Guanacos are smaller than llamas, but larger than alpacas and vicuñas. The color varies from reddish or dark russet to pale yellow. The swiftest of the four lamoids, they are even more shy and difficult to catch than vicuñas. Their fur is of fine texture but so seldom available because of the wildness of the animal that it is not important commercially.

When Charles Darwin saw the guanaco in Patagonia in 1832 he described it as "an elegant animal in a state of nature, with a long slender neck and fine legs." Another observer, George Simpson, had a rather different impression. According to him, a guanaco "looks like a careless mixture of parts intended for other beasts and turned down as below standard."

Whatever its esthetic value, the guanaco

plays an indispensable role in the lives of the Patagonian Indians. They use its hide for clothing, rugs, and saddle cloths, and its meat plays an important part in their diet. But in recent years the wire fences of the sheep raisers have been en-

croaching more and more on the guanacos' grazing lands in Patagonia, and this encroachment together with the constant hunting of the animals by the Indians is expected to result in a gradual decrease in their numbers.



A GUANACO

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# Organization of American States

## THE COUNCIL

PURSUANT to the Charter<sup>1</sup> of the Organization of American States, signed at the Bogotá Conference on April 30, 1948, and to Resolution XL of the Final Act of that Conference, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union proceeded on May 18 to reconstitute itself as the Council of the Organization.

Resolution XLI transmitted to the Council the wish of the American States that Dr. Alberto Lleras and Dr. William Manger, elected last year Director General and Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, should become Secretary General and Assistant Secretary of the Organization of American States, in view of their outstanding services to the cause of inter-American solidarity and the desirability of the continued utilization of their experience and ability. The Council took action accordingly. Both Dr. Lleras and Dr. Manger will hold office for ten years.

In order to implement the provisions of the Charter placed in effect provisionally by Resolution XL and to fulfill certain resolutions, the Chairman of the Council was authorized to appoint six committees. They will be made up by representatives of the countries named hereinafter:

<sup>1</sup> The Charter will be published in the next number of the BULLETIN.

1. COMMITTEE ON THE REGULATIONS OF THE COUNCIL AND THE PAN AMERICAN UNION:  
Argentina Cuba  
Brazil Dominican Republic  
Chile El Salvador  
Colombia United States
2. COMMITTEE ON THE ORGANS OF THE COUNCIL AND THE FORMULATION OF THEIR STATUTES:  
Argentina Mexico  
Bolivia Nicaragua  
Cuba United States  
Dominican Republic Venezuela  
Honduras
3. COMMITTEE ON SPECIALIZED ORGANIZATIONS:  
Argentina Dominican Republic  
Brazil Mexico  
Chile Nicaragua  
Colombia United States  
Cuba
4. COMMITTEE ON PRIVILEGES AND IMMUNITIES:  
Argentina Ecuador  
Brazil Mexico  
Colombia United States  
Dominican Republic
5. COMMITTEE ON BASES OF FINANCING THE PAN AMERICAN UNION:  
Brazil Haiti  
Ecuador Mexico  
Guatemala United States
6. COMMITTEE ON THE CUERVO DICTIONARY:  
Chile Panama  
Colombia Paraguay  
Honduras Venezuela  
Mexico

The Chairman and the Vice Chairman of the Council will be considered members *ex officio* of all of the foregoing committees.

## NECROLOGY

**PABLO CONSTANTINO AROSEMENA FORTE.**—Panamanian educator and diplomat; son of former President Pablo Arosemena. Born in Panama City and educated at the Colegio del Istmo, Instituto Nacional, and Cornell University; also studied in England and France, and was awarded by the latter country the Academic Palms for his research work in chemistry. He was a professor of chemistry at the Instituto Nacional, Normal de Señoritas, and Universidad Nacional de Panamá before entering the diplomatic service. Former Minister of Panama in Haiti and Cuba; at the time of his death was Minister to Chile. Died in Santiago, October 6, 1947, at the age of 56.

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**JUAN ESTEBAN MONTERO RODRÍGUEZ.**—Well-known lawyer, professor, and former President of Chile.

Dr. Montero was born in Santiago on February 12, 1879 and received his law degree from the University of Chile in 1901. In 1931, he was given his first public appointment as Minister of the Interior. Upon the ousting of President Carlos Ibáñez in July 1931, Dr. Montero became provisional President of Chile, and a few months later was formally elected to office. In June 1932, however, outbreaks forced Montero to relinquish the presidency and go into exile. He returned to Chile in March 1933 and died in Santiago on February 25, 1948.

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